The Nation.

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The Week.

President Roosevelt rings true again in the matter of the post-office at Indianola, Miss. The office in this place was in charge of an excellent colored woman who had filled it for a number of years, always with complete satisfaction to the Post-office Department and to the neighborhood she served. Originally appointed by President Harrison, she was reappointed by President McKinley nearly six years ago. Her character and standing are of the best, but of late the rowdy white element in the community, whose Anglo-Saxon chivalry towards her sex is reserved for white women exclusively, has tried to drive her out of office simply because of her color. The just punishment of the town is the closing of the office. The prosecution of the offenders belongs, under the circumstances, to the community, and the President's action is a proper bringing to bear of pressure to that end. Southern regeneration from lynching must come from the South itself; but the Federal Government should not withhold its moral influence when its own officers are threatened. Meantime, as was foreshadowed, the President has sent in Dr. Crum's nomination for the Charleston collectorship.

Whatever else may be said of Senator Hoar's Anti-Trust bill, it may be confidently affirmed that it is not a measure which will become law at this session of Congress. It is a long and intricate bill, which it would be the easiest thing in the world to talk out in the Senate, even if the chairman of the House Judiciary Committee were not strongly opposed to it, as he explicitly announces that he is, and even if the President were not disinclined to let Mr. Hoar steal his thunder. He has notified the country through the press that the Administration's measure is something apart from the Massachusetts Senator's.

A mass meeting was held last week in Faneuil Hall to urge upon Congress the imperative necessity of an immediate repeal of the duties upon beef and coal. The gathering was interesting principally on account of the prominent Republicans who had some part in the proceedings. Of course Mr. Foss was present, and advocated, as "a Republican and a protectionist," free iron, free coal, free hides, and Canadian reciprocity. Then the Rev. Edward A. Horton, speaking as "a Republican and a minister," denounced the tariff on coal and beef as "a disgrace to Christian rules of brotherhood and humanity." This, we suppose, will merely convince the protectionists that clergymen should keep out of politics. Only an unworldly and unpractical visionary would ever have supposed that the tariff had anything to do with brotherhood and humanity; it is, of course, purely "a business question." And finally, Congressman McCall sent a long letter, in which he denounced the duty on coal as "a miserable device of men" to deprive Canada and the United States "of a choice gift which Providence has bestowed upon them," and declared that we are attempting "by artificial contrivances to nullify the benevolent decrees of nature." If this be not the rankest free-trade doctrine that ever came from the pen of a New England Congressman, we should like to know where a better specimen can be found—for we should be glad to read it. But then, McCall always was a hopeless case. He actually believes that the wretched Filipinos have rights which the Anglo-Saxon is bound to respect, and does not hesitate to say so. Such a man would be drawn, naturally enough, into a movement to secure some recognition of the rights of those Americans who are so unfortunate as to have to buy either coal or meat.

The New Year is full of promise for the new Republic of Cuba. It finds President Palma in a stronger position than ever, owing to his firmness in putting down the Havana strike. The feeling in the Cuban Congress towards him is friendlier, and he has gained a number of supporters, despite the fact that he was forced to remove the Mayor of Havana, who did his best, it appears, to foment the strike. As a whole, the island seems to be far more orderly, particularly in the interior, than when under Gen. Wood—a circumstance that makes the refusal of the President to withdraw the last of the American troops the more regrettable. The Republic is now collecting more revenue and expending less than did Gen. Wood's government. The sugar-planting season has begun earlier than usual, and the tobacco crop bids fair to be one of the largest in the history of the island. If the reciprocity treaty should be passed at an early date, the Cubans would undoubtedly look forward to one of the most prosperous and happy years in their history.

Extracts from the annual reports of Gov. Taft and the Philippine Commission, published on Monday, give so gloomy a view of the condition of the Filipinos as to warrant all Imperialist editors in burying them as deeply as possible in the inside pages of their newspapers. Nothing said by the "pessimistic" anti-Imperialists, incredulous of the ability of the United States to administer colonies better than any other nation, can surpass the blackness of these official reports. Wasted by war and misgovernment, the islands are really in a shocking condition, many of the inhabitants being kept alive only by food supplies purchased by the Commission with the insular revenues. A locust invasion; the loss, through war and disease, of the water buffaloes upon which the rice culture is dependent; the cholera and the plague; brigandage; the pecuniary losses because of the silver standard—these are some of the reasons assigned by Gov. Taft for taking a gloomy view of the future of the islands. If the buffaloes are not speedily replaced by importations from other countries, agriculture will continue to be at a standstill. Under these circumstances brigandage flourishes, so that Gov. Taft foresees the necessity of calling upon the military for aid in certain districts, although the constabulary has thus far been able to cope in a measure with this evil. He reports that, "as the conditions grow worse—for they are likely to do so before they grow better—it will be necessary in a province like Cavité, where ladronism seems inbred in the people, to proclaim martial law, and even to call in the military finally to suppress it; but it is still hoped that it may be avoided." The only encouraging statement in Gov. Taft's message is the fact that, "since the Fourth of July last, not a shot has been fired by an American soldier." For this we may all give thanks. Gov. Taft pays a high compliment to the natural orderliness of the Filipinos by expressing his surprise at the slight disturbances in view of the terribly depressed financial condition of the islands.

By his usual methods, Addicks has secured one more supporter in the Delaware Legislature. There seems to be some little dispute whether voters in the Kent County district, where a special election was held on December 31, received $50 or only $20 each for their ballots, but nobody denies that the vote-buying by the supporters of Addicks was open and general. As a result, the Addicks man won by a majority of 192, in a district where the result in November was a tie, and where the total vote is only 800. Though he gains an additional vote in the Legislature, Addicks will hardly profit by this flagrant exposure of his corrupt practices. His strength on joint ballot will now be 23 instead of 22, but the number of votes necessary to a choice has also been increased by one as a result of filling the vacant Kent County seat. The Delaware corruptionist

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forced to keep silent when interviewed. He should ask himself whether the existence of so much blackmailing among the police is not in large measure due to the Administration's attitude towards enforcement.

Another outrage is about to be added to the dismal annals of monetary crimes. The Mexican Ambassador to the United States has confirmed the report that his country "is examining the question of changing to the gold standard," and it appears that some preliminary steps have already been taken in this direction. This will be sad news to the friends of silver who had looked forward to the complete rehabilitation of their favorite idol, and had believed that Mexico would never "dishonor" one of its greatest staple products and reduce silver to the position of a mere commodity, such as pork, or grain, or iron. And the worst of it is that the blow has been struck so soon after Mr. Bryan had journeyed to Mexico to study the currency problem, and to prevent, if possible, the perpetration of such an outrage. And yet, one who is able to master his sympathy for the sad fate of poor, abandoned silver can manage to take a cheerful view of the situation. Of all the countries that have remained upon a silver standard, Mexico is our best customer. In 1901 our total trade with our Southern neighbor was estimated at $65,326,000, which was more than twice the value of our trade with such a country as China. From our own point of view, it will be highly advantageous to have commercial intercourse with Mexico freed from the embarrassment caused by a fluctuating silver currency.

Wireless telegraphy threatens to remove the last resort for the nervous—the ocean steamship. Certain liners, it is announced, will not only maintain constant communication with the shore, but will issue a newspaper every day for the use of passengers. This will bring into shipboard life everything that the newspaper means. The stock ticker will compete with the mild merriment of the smoking room, branches of the famous houses of X——, Y——, and Z——, bankers and brokers, will displace the comparatively innocuous professional gambler, the latest odds on the races will be posted near the shuffle-board, a pool-room will attract those who would naturally have shone in the purser's gymkana; and the gossip of London, Paris, and New York will sustain seasick members of the gentler sex whom mild shipboard scandals leave comfortless. In fine, Mr. Marconi's invention seems likely to destroy that sense of community on shipboard by which people of diverse tastes, being forced to waive their work-a-day interests, meet upon a basis of pure sociability. Much of the glory and all of the restfulness of a sea voyage will have departed—except for those who have the time and courage to take sailing vessels, or, being millionaires, can afford to keep their steam yachts unprovided with the latest invention.

Why the Conservatives have lost fifteen hundred votes and a bye-election in the sporting constituency of Newmarket, it would be difficult to say. Presumably, the jockeys and trainers who worked for Mr. C. D. Rose, a well-known yachtsman, did not make their appeal primarily to the Nonconformist conscience. Perhaps the Government's failure to "witch the world with noble horsemanship" in the purchase of army remounts may have been cited with damaging effect by good Liberals who were also convinced horsemen. Mr. Gibson Bowles has recently caused some amusement by catching the Foreign Secretary in a mistranslation of French, and one may imagine the Liberal orators of Newmarket adopting Mr. Bowles's heckling methods, and saying of Mr. Brodrick's knowledge of horseflesh, "'e don't know 'is 'ead from 'is 'ock." Arguments like this would have distinct political value in the Newmarket constituency. But, however special the causes of the Newmarket defeat may be, there is now a sufficient record of Unionist disaster in constituencies as various as those of Kent, Yorkshire, and Lancashire to show that the Government has worn out the patience of many of its supporters. This conviction that something is amiss with the Ministry is politically quite as damaging as a more reasoned opposition.

Germany's rupture with England is now complete—poetically speaking. Wildenbruch has handed Kipling his passports. Never again shall the English poet's name be heard in Germany, announces, in true dithyrambic spirit, the favorite bard of the Hohenzollerns. Kipling is only the uncrowned—the unlaurelled—official poet of Great Britain, but Wildenbruch is court meistersinger in Berlin. The Kaiser openly praises and patronizes him, and apparently would like to make it *Majestätsbeleidigung* not to go to his stupid mediæval plays. Certainly the German people have shown that nothing but the threat of prosecution for high treason can drive them to a Wildenbruch drama. However, this poet's retort to Kipling's ode on the Goth and the shameless Hun is evidently something more than a display of courtier zeal. It is a kind of poetical mailed fist shaken across the Channel. Germany wants the English to understand that she can give as good as she gets in the way of poetical billingsgate.

The Emperor Francis Joseph reverses the usual process—instead of making his Ministers resign, he himself threatens to abdicate. The manœuvre is reported to have brought the Prime Ministers of Austria and Hungary to terms: they have agreed to prolong the *Ausgleich*, which fixes the financial relations of the two kingdoms. Whether the respective Parliaments at Vienna and Buda Pesth will be equally complacent remains to be seen. The question will occur to every one, however—If the mere threat of abdicating produces such consternation, what will happen when the Emperor dies? That is an event which, in the course of nature, cannot be long deferred, and no conundrum is harder to answer than what will then take place in the Austrian Empire. Of course, there are all sorts of rough-and-ready breakups and partitions suggested—Hungary to set up for herself, Bohemia to be a separate kingdom, the German provinces to gravitate towards Berlin, and so forth—but not one of them fails to create more formidable difficulties than it surmounts. It is possible that Europe may be so convinced of the soundness of Talleyrand's saying, "If Austria did not exist, it would be necessary to invent her," that all hands may join to preserve the *status quo* even after the puissant Emperor is gone. Yet the problem of Austria's housekeeping is clearly growing more acute with every year.

The late Señor Sagasta was probably quite as much politician as statesman. He was the War Minister of Gen. Prim, and the prop of the Bourbon dynasty during the Cuban war. His peculiar and personal form of Liberalism stood for very few political ideas, although within the present year he fearlessly enforced the laws against the religious orders. But he will probably be remembered less for his varied activities as engineer, journalist, and party leader, than for that strange chance which brought him to power on the eve of the Spanish-American war. At that time he showed himself a statesman. He accepted an inheritance of disaster with patient hopefulness; did everything to restore peace to Cuba, to quiet Spanish indignation, and to meet the ever more pressing demands of the United States. That he deserved to succeed, and that the final declaration of war was the result of the *Maine* horror, and of needless vacillation at Washington, will undoubtedly be the verdict of history. Powerless to prevent the humiliation of Spain through the loss of her colonies, he saved her from internal anarchy, and at the last appeared to turn disaster on the two oceans to the profit of the home country; thwarting personal ambitions that threatened the state, and placing the crown securely upon the head of a boy king. In the last five years of his life he showed that peculiar fortitude which any statesman must have who leads back to political health a prostrate nation.

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COLOR AND CRIME.

We print in another column the reply of "W. H. B." to Professor DuBois's criticism of his misuse of the census. On examination it will be found that he has compared the figures for the entire colored population, male and female, negro, Chinese, Japanese, and Indian, with the figures for the negro male criminals. The error in this respect is of no great practical importance, except as emphasizing how perfunctory was the statistical inquiry upon which "W. H. B." assumed to base an argument against the education of nine million of his fellow-countrymen. The radical blunder which he made is, however, due to his not having taken the trouble to find out what the Census Office means by an illiterate. He supposes that the word as used in the census reports implies a person who can neither read *nor* write, when, in fact, it means a person who cannot read *and* write. He found that the census report stated that 56.76 per cent. of the colored population were illiterate. He turned to another census volume and found it there stated that 54.13 per cent. of the negro male criminals can neither read nor write. Without more ado, he felt himself justified in asserting that, in proportion to their numbers, the "educated negroes were more criminal than the illiterate." Had he read the few paragraphs preceding the tables of illiteracy in part two of the population statistics of the census of 1890, he would have found a precise definition of the term illiterate as used in those reports.

In his first letter to this journal, "W. H. B." asserted that, proportionally, the negro rate of criminality was higher in the Northern than in the Southern States. There is no question that the census reports for 1890 do show that, on June 1, 1890, there were, in proportion to the total negro population, very many more negroes confined in prison in the Northern than in the Southern States. It may be true that this fact shows that the Northern negroes are more vicious than the Southern. It is, however, by no means certain that it does. The same table shows that, on the same day, June 1, 1890, out of every million inhabitants of Massachusetts, 2,335 were prisoners, while only 531 to the million of the inhabitants of North Dakota and 590 to the million of the inhabitants of West Virginia were similarly confined. It would be a rather rash man who, on this basis, should assert that the people of Massachusetts were four times as bad as those of North Dakota or of West Virginia. Moreover, the same table shows that only 1,421 to the million of Mississippi negroes were imprisoned, while, as before stated, there were 2,335 prisoners to the million of population in Massachusetts. If "W. H. B.'s" reasoning is sound, it follows that the average Mississippi negro has fewer criminal propensities than has the average resident of Massachusetts, black or white. It will be also rather hard to explain why it is that, while, to every million of Mississippi negroes, there were only 1,421 prisoners, there were 3,086 to the million in Alabama, and 3,022 in Georgia. The fact is, that the methods of administering criminal justice and the provision of reformatories, jails, and penitentiaries differ so widely in the different States, that any comparison between the criminal statistics of the different sections of the country based merely on the number of people in each of them who are in prison on a particular day, are absolutely worthless. There is, of course, no doubt whatever that, in proportion to population, more negroes than whites are convicted of crime. There can be little question that more negroes than whites commit crime. It is practically certain, however, that the difference in the criminal propensities of the two races is exaggerated rather than represented by the statistics of convictions, and would be exaggerated rather than represented by those statistics even if they were always accurately compiled, and compiled in such a way as to make comparisons more practical and easy than they now are.

It is not probable that many innocent negroes are convicted of offences which they did not commit. Such convictions sometimes take place, as they sometimes take place in the case of innocent white men. They probably take place somewhat more frequently among negroes than among whites, and this for two reasons. In the first place, the negroes as a class are poor and without influential friends. The innocent white men who are convicted of crimes they did not commit, are almost always poor and without influential friends. There being relatively more negroes than whites who are in that unfortunate condition, the chances of an innocent negro being convicted are greater than of an innocent white man. Secondly, the factor of race prejudice in this and other matters cannot be ignored. It is not that a white jury ever deliberately convicts a negro of an offence which they do not believe he committed, but it is because, unconsciously to themselves, very much less evidence will satisfy an ordinary white jury that a negro has committed a crime than is required to convince them that a white man has done the same thing. In short, their state of mind is very like that of "W. H. B." He would never have made the assertion that education made white men criminals unless his study of the subject had been so complete and thorough as to leave in his mind no room for a possibility of doubt that he is right. A mere hasty glance at a couple of tables was quite sufficient to satisfy him that education did tend to turn negroes into criminals.

Then, many times white men commit crimes for which they are not convicted, or, if convicted, are sentenced to lighter terms than are imposed upon negroes for similar offences. A very small proportion of the white men in this country, North or South, who commit a premeditated murder, are capitally punished for the offence. In some portions of the country, such, for example, as the mountain regions of Kentucky, any punishment for such offences is relatively rare. It is probable that the greater number of negroes who are guilty are punished, and not infrequently to the full extent of the law.

No one who has had any experience with the practical administration of criminal justice, can doubt that people who have influential connections, of one kind or another, are less frequently and less severely punished for crimes committed by them than are those people who have no such connections. It is not merely or chiefly what may be called a clearly illegitimate exercise of political or personal "pull" that produces this difference. The causes are more diverse and more subtle. A young man commits an offence, perhaps a serious one. He or his people have friends of respectability and more or less influence. These friends see the prosecuting witnesses, and press strongly upon them the possibility that, if this offence be overlooked, a worthy citizen may be saved to the community and the family spared permanent disgrace. In very many instances considerations like these prevent any prosecution at all. Even after the prosecution is begun, similar representations to prosecuting officers often lead to an entry of a *stet* or a *nolle prosequi*.

Often this failure to prosecute or to carry on the prosecution to the point of trial is not only merciful but wise. It still remains true, however, that such wisdom and mercy are very much more likely to be displayed in the case of those who have intelligent and influential friends to speak for them than in the case of the poor and friendless. When a criminal case is brought to trial, the offender who has money enough to procure good counsel, or who has friends enough in the community to create more or less sympathy for him, stands a very much better chance of escaping conviction, though guilty, than do those unfortunate members of the community who, though no more guilty, have no such assistance rendered them. The extreme poverty of the negroes as a class compels those of them who live in cities especially, to leave their children at a very early age practically without parental supervision or control. When, as is common, both mother and father are out at domestic service, or at other employment which takes them from their homes for long hours together, the children from a very early age are left to their own resources.

After all such allowances are made, it

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is not improbable, however, that there is a greater tendency to crime in the American negro of to-day than in the American white man; but the difference is much less than the statistics of conviction of crime would indicate to be the case.

WORK FOR A REAL "WORLD-POWER."

We had so fondly hoped, because we had been so loudly told, that the United States became a "world-Power" when it whipped enfeebled Spain, that we can but rub our eyes to find Europeans saying that we have only now attained that dignity. And, perversely enough, they acribe it to our having, not gone to war with some one half our size and smashed a fleet, but having kept the peace! It is the firm and successful stand of this country for arbitrating the Venezuelan dispute which makes us thought of with more respect than ever in those very lands where the heart of military glory was long ago plucked out, to use Rosebery's phrase. The French dispatches speak of the great admiration felt everywhere on the Continent for President Roosevelt as a peacemaker. It is our exaltation of peace which has heightened our prestige, and our success in causing arms to yield to the august verdict of the Hague Arbitration Tribunal which has made us bulk larger in the eyes of the world.

We should not let this Venezuelan incident, which we have made a national triumph, swim from our ken before we have read in it the moral that lies writ there for all who have eyes to see. This renowned victory of peace has been won on principles which are a standing refutation of what we have been doing elsewhere for four years past. In Venezuela we have done what we said could not be done in the Philippines. In behalf of aliens we have dared greatly, and have encountered risks which we said could not be faced in behalf of our own subjects. One has only to recall the two main reasons given for our course in the Philippines to see that they applied with equal force to Venezuela. If they could safely be disregarded in the latter case, so they could in the former.

These two reasons were (1) that if we should withdraw from the Philippines the rapacious Powers would pounce upon them; and (2) that, but for the presence of our flag, the islands would fall into "anarchy," and the United States could never be responsible for an anarchist government. Who does not remember the awful pictures drawn of the navies of Europe speeding to the prey in case they once saw us leave the archipelago? Why, the land-grabbing Powers were only waiting for the signal! Each of them had its favorite island picked out in advance—Japan had her eye on Mindanao, Germany would never be happy till she got Cebu, England would, of course, slip over in the night from Hong-Kong and annex Luzon. Among so many islands, there would be something for every one; and our alarmed Imperialists saw them already parcelled out. The European nations simply could not resist the chance to take good land away from the weak Filipinos. Hence how clear our duty, having taken it ourselves, to follow the good old rule of conquerors, and say with Charles XII., "The Lord has given and the Devil shall not take away."

Well, gentle Imperialist, do you not see now the significance of what has happened in Venezuela? There you had your weak and defenceless country. It was like a tethered lamb before the lion and the eagle. But did they rush upon it? No; the United States told them they must not, and they did not. Ah, but that was the Monroe Doctrine! Let us, however, clear our minds even of Monroe cant. The Monroe Doctrine is, in the last analysis, nothing but our wish and will. It has no standing in international law. It is simply *Sic volo, sic jubeo*. And we could just as successfully will and command in the case of the Philippines as in the instance of Venezuela. Of course, we said at the time that we could not. Our leading Jingoes among the prophets assured us that an American protectorate over the Filipinos was impossible. A predatory world would not respect it. But we could make it, in the East as well as the West. The Monroe Doctrine is elastic enough, we'll be bound, to stretch across the Pacific in case of need.

Then there was our dread of Philippine "anarchy." Venezuelan anarchy, however, we have shown ourselves perfectly ready to stomach. If any chaotic government ever had a name to live anywhere, it has existed for nearly a century on the shores of the Orinoco, if Venezuelan historians have written their own annals true. "Mean and bloody" has that history been, as President Roosevelt has said. From Blanco to Crespo, at least, the Venezuelan Government has been in the hands of an ever-changing oligarchy of adventurers and usurpers and tyrants. It is precisely because of rampant anarchy in Venezuela that Great Britain and Germany proposed to interfere. But we, to whom an imagined Philippine anarchy was a nightmare, stood up for the actual Venezuelan anarchists like brothers beloved, and maintained that, as Mr. Roosevelt has said, it was infinitely better that they should be left to develop along their own lines than be interfered with by an alien Power.

We will not labor the point. Were not the art of contradiction as glorious in power to-day as it was in the time of Socrates and Glaucon, we should expect all reasonable Americans to agree that what we have done in Venezuela—and, we may add, in Cuba—we could have done in the Philippines. We assert, for our part, that it is a work we yet ought to undertake. To cry "Hands off!" for a feeble folk in the isles of the Pacific; to give their strong national sentiment an opportunity to expand in conformity to its own type; to place them under the ægis of the American republic and the Hague Tribunal—there you have work right worthy of a real world-Power.

THE PHILIPPINE CURRENCY BILL.

Just before the holiday adjournment of Congress, Senator Lodge reported from the Committee on the Philippines a bill (S. 6357) to regulate the currency of the islands. It provides, first, that the gold peso, equal to a half dollar of our money, shall be the unit of value, but does not provide for any gold coinage. Instead of that, it makes the gold coins of the United States legal tender in the Philippines at the rate of one dollar for two pesos. Next, it provides for a silver peso of full legal tender, to be coined from bullion bought by the Government, and of which the Government must coin twenty millions, and may coin seventy-five millions. Thirdly, it provides for subsidiary silver coins to be legal tender for ten dollars.

The effect of this measure is to establish in the Philippines what is called the "limping standard"—a phrase applied to countries which have the gold standard nominally, but also have a large amount of silver of full legal tender. Germany, France, and the countries of the Latin Union are in this category. The United States is in the same category. None of the countries named consider the condition a happy one. The European nations took the limping standard because they could not help themselves. They caught it, as people catch the measles. They had large amounts of silver in circulation in the early seventies, when the gold standard asserted itself over the civilized world, and they could not get rid of it. Germany made great efforts to sell hers, and did dispose of a part of it. In doing so she broke the price of the metal so that when the Latin Union countries decided to stop coining silver, they had no market on which to sell theirs. The United States is the only country which took this kind of measles voluntarily. We took it with our politics, but no political party is very proud of it now; nor shall we have any reason to be proud if, after our experience with it and our knowledge of it in other lands, we inflict it upon a people who are under our legislative control.

The great objection to the limping standard is its uncertainty. Those who are under its régime never know where they may stand a year hence. A bill is now pending in Congress to remove the

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uncertainty which the limping standard entails—a bill to provide for the redemption of the silver dollar in gold. The act of March 14, 1900, recognized the uncertainty by a clause requiring the Secretary of the Treasury to keep the silver dollar at par with the gold dollar, but did not provide him with any means to do so. Senate bill 6357 recognizes the same uncertainty attaching to this system in the Philippines, by authorizing the Government of the islands to adopt such measures as it may deem proper to maintain parity between the gold and silver coins, and to borrow ten million dollars gold for that purpose. This clause of the bill expresses the fear of its framers that the equilibrium of the standard will not be maintained without extraneous and extraordinary efforts.

Looking at the details of the bill, it is very doubtful whether parity can be maintained if the Government of the Philippines exercises all the powers conferred upon it. It must coin twenty million, and it may coin seventy-five million silver pesos of full legal tender, at the ratio of 32 to 1, while the market ratio of silver to gold is 43 to 1. The line of prudence and safety under the limping standard lies in keeping the amount of the overvalued money (the silver pesos) no greater than the retail trade of the country can absorb, but the temptation will be ever present to overpass the limit. We know how this is ourselves. Unless the Philippine Government is wiser than the Washington Government was, we may expect to see the limit overpassed as it was under the Sherman act.

In devising a new monetary system for the Philippines, the simplest plan is the best. The gold standard, as provided in the bill before us, with a silver subdiary coinage of the kind provided in the act passed by Congress last year, is quite sufficient. There is no good reason for thrusting in a third kind of money, whose sole virtue will consist in its redemption in gold. These pesos would be both an element of danger and a needless expense. As the bill provides for issuing paper certificates for them like our silver certificates, why not issue the certificates in the first instance? The pesos are to circulate on the credit of the Government, not on their intrinsic value. Our silver certificates would circulate just as well, perhaps better, if there was not a dollar of silver behind them. If the Filipinos prefer to handle silver rather than paper, give them plenty of half pesos, which the bill also provides for. The natives probably know that two halves are equal to a whole one.

As the pesos are quite unnecessary, the only visible object in coining them is to make a market for silver bullion. We trust that the Senate Committee is not now trying to "do something for silver" at the expense of the Filipinos, but we recall the fact that the Senate bill of the last session did have that aim, since it contained a clause that the coins might be made at our mint, but that the silver bullion so coined should be of American production.

We are told by some people that if we introduce the single gold standard we shall increase the wages of labor in the islands. That depends upon the ratio between gold and silver which may be taken as a starting-point. Wages in the Philippines, although nominally the same as of old, have been actually reduced by the decline in the value of silver. The laborer who gets a peso in wages, cannot buy so much with it as before. As regards future wages, the question is, What shall the future peso be? The bill says it shall be an amount of gold equal to half of an American dollar. That is the ratio of 32 to 1. It is a fair starting-point, since it was the market ratio when we took the islands. It was the ratio actually adopted by Japan in the same year. There has been a fresh drop in silver within a few weeks, which has cut the effective wages of labor still lower. The Filipino laborer has been thrown down by the force of circumstances, and Congress ought not to hold him down, but rather to lift him up and put him on his feet, especially since Congress neglected its duty in this particular, last summer, when it might have avoided the major part of this trouble.

THE ARTS OF THE EAST.

Lord Curzon, addressing an audience of native princes at the opening of the Indian Arts Exhibition at Delhi, urged these leaders of Indian opinion to stand by their own beautiful art. He deplored the tendency to adopt European fashions of furnishing merely because they are European, and showed that the future of the finer industries of India depends upon the presence of a body of intelligent patrons who will hold artist and craftsman to their best. An amusing sequel of this speech is the protest of the Tottenham Court Road furniture dealers, who blame Lord Curzon for discouraging the furniture trade with India, and convict him of purchasing in quantity the English fittings which he bids the princes of India eschew. But the furniture dealers of Tottenham Court Road will hardly be accepted as referees of the questions—Is it desirable to preserve the arts of the East? and, What are the conditions of their preservation?

When Théophile Gautier said that no Western nation could make a carved saddle, he caught a striking symbol for the arts of the East. These arts are, first of all, applied to the ordinary uses of life—the rug for prayer, the tent, the saddle cloth, the enamelled lantern, the tiles on the floor, the pottery for household uses, the brass or bronze utensils of ordinary service. These are the characteristic products of Asiatic art. These things have become the marvel of art lovers throughout the world, through a peculiar skill of which Western workmen have lost the tradition. The cumulative habits of a thousand years alone make possible the certainty of the Japanese ivory-cutter's knife; the peasant rug-maker of Persia and Asia Minor has a knowledge of color effects more subtle and correct than that of our greatest painters. In every branch of art, immemorial training has perfected the work of brain, and hand, and eye, so that in comparison with, say, a scrap of a Persian tile, our best pottery seems tentative and amateurish. It is this accumulated knowledge of beautiful ways of doing things that Lord Curzon begged the Indian vassals of England to cherish.

The future historian of Eastern culture will have a somewhat melancholy chapter to write on the decline and fall of Oriental art. He will show how the Western nations, among whom machine work had destroyed handicraft, filled the East with Brummagem manufactures. He will explain how the West dealt the East a still more crippling blow by requiring of the Eastern artist the work of the Western machine. The people of the nineteenth century, he will say, asked of China, Japan, India, Persia, Asia Minor, not their best, but their worst—anything, so it bore the tag Oriental. Under this foolish demand, he will explain, the art of rug-making virtually disappeared from the Asian villages, while the potteries of Japan gave themselves to caricatures, "for export," of their older and finer products, and Japanese painters cast away the beautiful linear symbolism to the perfecting of which centuries had gone, and gave themselves to meaningless imitation of the painting of Paris.

A very few years will decide the fate of the apparently moribund arts of the East. Unquestionably, machine-made products will there, as elsewhere, increasingly replace the direct work of the artist's hand. Does this mean that beautiful handicraft is to perish out of the East as utterly as it has done out of the West? Lord Curzon thinks he sees a remedy in the revival of national spirit and taste in the East itself. And, clearly, the redemption of Eastern art must come in this way, or not at all. The artist artisan does his best only for the patron of his race, from whom he may count upon complete appreciation. The patronage of foreign connoisseurs is, on the whole, demoralizing to the craftsman. He distrusts their knowledge, and scamps his work for them—as a glance at the French painting made expressly for the American market will prove. The real danger to Eastern art, then, lies in the reaction of Western civilization upon

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the men of wealth and station in the East. When the Indian prince becomes an Oxford man and a cricketer, he usually accepts the worst English standards—replaces his century-old rugs with Brussels carpet, and his carved teakwood with the gilt lacquer of the shops. Similarly, the Japanese has a tendency to become a vague New Yorker or Parisian. Thus he is unsettled in his own tastes, while he hardly acquires a sense for European art.

In fighting against that levelling tendency which is making the top hat the sign of gentility the world around, one is not merely tilting quixotically in behalf of the picturesque. There is a deeper principle at issue than the æsthetic preference for a turban over a derby hat—namely, that of intelligent nationalism. If the brown and yellow men of the East consent to be made over after the image of John Bull and Brother Jonathan, we shall have not only a less interesting world, but a less efficient world. No one, who realizes how much diversity of national life and thought has meant to the history of mankind, can wish to see the world peopled by Europeans and intellectual hybrids.

IS COLOR-BLINDNESS PREVENTABLE?

At a recent meeting of the British Ophthalmological Society, Dr. F. W. Edridge-Green brought forward some new facts of vital importance to the owners of railway and steamship lines, as well as to the travelling public. As a specialist on the subject of color-blindness and a member of the International Code of Signals Committee, he had pointed out, some years ago, that the Government tests for color-blindness were still insufficient, and the enforcement of regulations too lax. He predicted that if color names were ignored in the Board of Trade tests and reliance placed solely on the Holmgren system of matching colors, normal-sighted persons would be rejected; and this prediction was, he said, fulfilled. More than 38 per cent. one year, and more than 42 per cent. another year, were found to be normal-sighted and to have been wrongly rejected. He emphasized the fact that an engine-driver or sailor had to name a colored light when he saw it, and not to match it. At the same meeting Mr. C. Devereux Marshall remarked that it was most striking to find a person who could pass Holmgren's test with ease, declaring that a dull red light, which was quite visible to a normal-sighted person, did not exist at all, and that the room was quite dark. Persons with a shortened red vision were, he added, sources of the utmost danger when placed in responsible positions, either at sea or on the railway.

It is, therefore, more than probable that the regrettable fact that 158 passengers were killed and 2,436 injured by train accidents in the United States in 1901, is related in some cases to the general reliance on the Holmgren matching system. It will be desirable to revise the system of examination in accordance with Dr. Edridge-Green's latest experiments. The small sum spent on color examinations by the best-managed companies may be regarded as a cheap form of insurance against loss of rolling-stock and damage suits.

In sailors, color-blindness is an even greater menace than on the railways, and increasingly so with the growing speed of steamers. A seaman must be able to distinguish between red and green at a distance of at least two miles. There is every reason to think that if a list could be made of all the collisions since 1852, and the lives lost in consequence of the color-blindness of sailors, it would be appalling. Since it has been found that about one man in every twenty is color-blind, it follows that wherever tests for color vision are enforced, five out of every hundred applicants must be rejected, although they may in all other respects be the best five of the hundred who apply for the job. For these, and various other reasons, it would be an obvious advantage if color-blindness could be cured or prevented. No great harm is done if an occasional clergyman or venerable Quaker orders bright green or vivid scarlet material for a gown, or if a farmer is unable to tell strawberries from the surrounding leaves except by their shape. Nor is it likely to occur very often that a cashier gives gold thinking it silver, or that a stamp seller cheats himself or others. But it is said that silk dealers have to do with about 2,000 different colors and shades, and it is likely that in this business, and many others in which colored objects are handled, much confusion, error, and loss results daily from the imperfect color sense of some employees. Æsthetically, too, there is certainly a disadvantage in seeing rainbows colorless and in missing the glories of sunsets.

In a lecture delivered before the Royal Institution of Great Britain twelve years ago, Dr. Brudenell Carter declared that the condition of color-blindness is absolutely incurable and incapable of modification by training or exercise in individual cases. This discouraging view has prevailed generally, although the interesting fact that only one or two women in a thousand have a defective color sense was known, and was generally accounted for by the fact that females, from their infancy, pay more attention than boys do to finery—fancy-work, flowers, feathers, ribbons, and gaudy dress in general. It has also been known for some time that, in the case of civilized races, color-blindness is more frequent among the poor than among the wealthy and better educated. This suggests that training has something to do with reducing the number of cases. If it were simply a question of mental evolution in general, we should find the defect specially prevalent among savages and barbarians. As a matter of fact, it is rarer among them than among civilized men. Of the Indians examined by Blake and Franklin of Kansas University, only one in a hundred was color-blind. Even if we agree with those who maintain that Indians are not æsthetically interested in flowers, trees, feathers, and the various ornaments they wear, we can but surmise that their constant ceremonial use of these things, and their need of a fine color sense as an aid in hunting and fighting, gave them their superiority to us in this respect as in regard to acuteness of vision.

Fresh evidence in confirmation of the view that color-blindness is capable of modification, or rather prevention, in individuals, is provided in the *Educational Review* by Alida S. Williams. Holding that this defect is not the result of retinal imperfections, of brain lesions, or of some mysterious freak of inheritance, but simply of insufficient color training in childhood, she recently tested this view by examining, in one of the primary schools of this city, 580 boys whose ages ranged from six to twelve years. These boys had received the careful systematic color-training now given in our public schools to children of both sexes, and the result was that, instead of the twenty-four cases of color-blindness to be expected according to the current belief, there was only one, and that one yielded to special treatment. The boys delighted in the brilliant hues placed before them, and convinced the writer that it is "not only unwise, but unkind, to starve a child's color sense." The result obtained is of value, not only with reference to the marine and railway service of the future, but as suggesting the important educational question whether there may not be other perceptive weaknesses in adults which might be prevented by the proper training of the senses in the impressionable days of childhood.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

PHILADELPHIA, December 30, 1902.

The eighteenth annual meeting of the American Historical Association was held at Philadelphia December 26-30, being the first visit of the Association to that city. The experiment of holding over a Sunday, initiated at the Washington meeting in 1901, was repeated this year. The attendance throughout was the largest yet recorded, though it seems inevitable that but a small percentage of the membership will be represented at any annual meeting. The general arrangement of the programme followed the plan observed for several years past—two joint sessions with the American Economic Association, and a business session, besides the meetings for the reading of papers. The new feature was a special

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session devoted to international law, in this instance given up principally to papers concerning the Isthmus of Panama and the interoceanic-canal project. The papers submitted, while without exception interesting and valuable, were as a whole less striking than has sometimes been the case. Perhaps the extreme tardiness with which the annual reports of the Association appear, together with the increased facilities for the publication of historical writing in other directions, tends to make the annual meetings a less inviting forum for the presentation of historical work of the first importance, while the almost entire disappearance of public discussion takes from the proceedings an element of interest formerly much more in evidence.

Of the papers read, three, if one may judge by the discussion of them in social meetings of the members, aroused particular interest. Prof. J. F. Jameson of the University of Chicago, in a paper entitled "Letters from the Federal Convention of 1787," presented one of a series of studies of the Convention, in which the inner history of that remarkable body, as contained in the correspondence of the members, was somewhat more fully revealed. Prof. C. A. Duniway of Leland Stanford, in a paper on "Diplomacy and the Withdrawal of the French from Mexico," went far towards discrediting the idea that it was pressure from the United States that primarily compelled the French withdrawal. The evidence adduced by Professor Duniway seems to show pretty clearly that the withdrawal of the French troops had been already decided upon for other reasons, chiefly European, and that the United States seized the "psychological moment" to cast its own weight into the balance, and win thereby the credit for the abandonment by France of the Mexican enterprise. The paper was an important contribution to the somewhat devious history of later American diplomacy. A paper by Prof. William MacDonald of Brown, on "A Neglected Point of View in American Colonial History," was an earnest protest against the too common isolation of our colonial history, with its excessive attention to local and antiquarian details, and a plea for the study of the period primarily as the history of English colonial policy in America. Such a change of emphasis, it was pointed out, would recall attention to the superior commercial importance, throughout the colonial period, of the West Indian sugar colonies, show the part—practically forgotten now—played by the colonial governor and colonial agent, awaken a new interest in the historical development of American law, and perhaps be not without instructive bearing on our own dangerous colonial experiments.

Of the other papers read, the most noteworthy were: "The American of 1775," by Mr. James Schouler, interesting, among other things, for its light on the late persistence of slavery in the Northern colonies; "The Art of Weaving—a Handmaid of Civilization," by Mr. William B. Weeden, a wholly competent authority; "Municipal Problems in Mediæval Switzerland," by Prof. J. M. Vincent of Johns Hopkins; "American Constitutional Principles in the Constituent Assembly," by Prof. H. E. Bourne of Western Reserve, an instructive study that might well be followed up; "Party Politics in Indiana during the Civil War," by Prof. James A. Woodburn of Indiana University, read in part only; and "American Business Corporations before 1789," by Judge Simeon E. Baldwin of Connecticut, a sound and thoroughgoing piece of work in a rich but little tilled field. Three papers read by title will appear later in the published report. Of the eighteen papers presented, twelve were on subjects in American history. The church-history section appears to have been suspended, but two of the papers read by title were on ecclesiastical topics.

The manifold activities of the Association wax greater and more numerous year by year. With a membership of over 1900, the Association is enabled to carry on a wider range of scholarly work than is attempted by any other scientific body in the country. The *American Historical Review* continues to be an historical as well as a financial success; the editors noting particularly a gratifying increase in the number of articles submitted on subjects in European history. The report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission for the year comprises, among other papers, the letters of Salmon P. Chase during a part of the time in which he was Secretary of the Treasury. The Chairman of the Commission, Prof. E. G. Bourne, expressed the opinion that the Commission would probably find its most appropriate field hereafter in the field of American diplomatic history. The report of the Public Archives Commission contains accounts of the State records of Illinois and Oregon, and of the Bexar archives in the possession of the University of Texas, while reports on the archives of Maryland and California, and on the records of the Revolutionary counties of North Carolina, are in active preparation. Professor MacDonald relinquishes the chairmanship of this commission after three years of service, Dr. Herman V. Ames of the University of Pennsylvania being added to the commission and designated as chairman. The Justin Winsor prize was awarded this year to Mr. Charles McCarthy for a monograph on the Anti-Masonic party. The number of manuscripts offered in competition for this prize shows gratifying increase, but the committee of award has still to plead for manuscripts better put together and more legibly written. The bibliographical committee shows hopeful signs of activity, and proposes not only the publication of such bibliographies as are submitted to it—elaborate ones on Louisiana and Florida are in a forward state—but also the preparation of both general and special bibliographies particularly needed by students. Of new industries the Association proposes this year but one, but that of great importance, namely, the reprint, in carefully edited but inexpensive form, of leading narrative sources of American history. No project yet launched seems likely to contribute more to the spread of historical knowledge, particularly among persons and communities denied access to large libraries and costly editions, than this. The undertaking, to be carried through as a commercial enterprise without cost to the Association, was given into the charge of a committee, who will choose a general editor.

Notwithstanding, however, its wide influence and obvious success, the Association has still to solve problems of some seriousness. The rapid increase of membership, embracing as it does many persons only slightly interested in historical studies, tends unavoidably to obscure somewhat the scientific character of the organization, and to give it something of the character of such great popular bodies as the National Educational Association. The unequal distribution of members over the country, too, raises annually the question how far the Association should be a roving body or act the part of a missionary for those sections, like the South, where its representation is still small. For the moment the missionary star is in the ascendant, as is witnessed by the decision to hold the next meeting in New Orleans. On the other hand, the announced purpose of members on the Pacific Coast to have an affiliated section of their own, together with the unmistakable feeling on the part of students and teachers of political science that their interests are not sufficiently served by the existing organization, point to the possible dismemberment of the Association in the near future, and the formation of separate societies for particular sections or subjects. Where lines of work necessarily cross each other at so many points as do those of history, government, and administration, the formation of separate organizations would seem in every way regrettable, but the remoteness of the Pacific Coast States, where the Association is strong, presents a different problem. The executive administration, too, has hardly kept pace with the growing needs of the Association, and the provision this year for an additional meeting of the council annually hereafter might well have been made some time ago.

Never has the Association been entertained with such lavish hospitality. The University of Pennsylvania, Drexel Institute, the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, and the American Philosophical Society vied with each other in extending welcome to their guests, while the University and New Century Clubs generously offered a much appreciated accommodation. Of social courtesies of a private or personal sort there was literally no end. It seems, perhaps, ungenerous to suggest that the social side of these annual gatherings has been, in recent years, a bit over-emphasized, and that a simpler fare might please better a good many to whom so incessant a social round is, after all, somewhat distracting. On the other hand, no organization which is not believed in and highly regarded is likely to receive, unasked, such a kind reception as was accorded the American Historical Association at Philadelphia; and that the Association is both believed in and highly regarded is, happily, abundantly evidenced at each recurring annual meeting.

THE ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION AT PHILADELPHIA.

PHILADELPHIA, December 29, 1902.

The characteristic features of the fifteenth annual meeting of the American Economic Association, held here during the past four days with the University of Pennsylvania, were a large and representative attendance, a brilliant Presidential address, and a local hospitality so cordial and so unremitting as to leave the recipient gasping.

For the fact of large attendance, the Association's policy, now more or less definitely established, of a common meeting

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place and one or more joint sessions with the American Historical Association, is in considerable measure responsible. The relation of the two sciences in personnel and in scientific activity is so intimate that a joint place of meeting, with the practical certainty of reduced railway rates, often becomes a determining consideration in the case of members hesitating as to attendance. But the larger circumstance responsible for a successful meeting of American political economists at this particular time is, of course, the extraordinary development of economic study in the United States. It has become almost a commonplace to prophesy that the scientific leadership in economic inquiry, which two generations have seen pass from Great Britain to Germany, will ultimately reside in the United States. Evidence of this significant aspect of "America's economic supremacy" presses on every side—newly established professorships, larger student bodies, additional courses of instruction, increasing avenues of publication, an enthusiastic body of young investigators forging to the front in keen emulation, and, best of all, a growing influence of expert economic opinion in the formulation of public policies and in the administration of public affairs.

The first session of the meeting, held with the historians on Friday evening in the beautiful auditorium of Drexel Institute, was devoted to the Presidential addresses. Capt. Mahan of the Historical Association spoke on "Subordination in Historical Treatment," and Professor Seligman of the Economic Association discussed "Economics and Social Progress." Mr. Joseph Wharton, Chairman of the Local Reception Committee, welcomed the two bodies. President Seligman's address may be regarded as a sequel to his noteworthy paper on "The Economic Interpretation of History," presented at last year's meeting, and since expanded and published in book form. "Relativity, not absolutism; change, not permanence—is the watchword of all social, political, and ethical progress." This sentence was the keynote of the address. Beginning with emphatic statement of the essential relativity of all economic thought and all political doctrine, a striking interpretation of certain phases of American history was presented. New England democracy was described as the result, not of Puritan ancestry, but of economic conditions, while similarly the individualist theory in America was characterized as the product of definite economic conditions in the nineteenth century, the passing of which is now in turn undermining the theory of extreme individualism. In this sense—

> "American history has been the history of national infancy. To predict a future which shall be a necessary development from our early past, would be as childish as to explain the conditions of Roman imperialism from the facts of the pre-republican age. While the stubborn racial characteristics must, indeed, not be overlooked, the American of the future will bear but little resemblance to the American of the past. To forecast the coming social transformation in our country without bearing in mind the fundamental change in the economic conditions, were puerile indeed."

Such recognition of economic forces in our past national development is the surest safeguard against that pessimism which sees in our present unquestioned prosperity the beginning of future decay and final dissolution. Modern industrial society is differentiated from all its predecessors in the practical exhaustion of free land, in the predominance of industrial capital, in the application of scientific methods, in the existence of a competitive régime based on the newer conception of liberty, on the spread of education and the birth of a distinct public opinion, and in a true democratic spirit and the growth of a new idealism. These conditions ensure a continued increase in the productive powers of society and an inevitable tendency to secure to each class in the community its proper share in the national dividend. But this outlook should not encourage fatalism. With the subordination of the individual to the social interest, to the advantage of individual and society alike, there is an ever enlarging field, and ever more pressing need for the wise regulation which will result in a more even, more equable, and more harmonious development. And herein lie the rôle of economic theory and the mission of the economist.

Saturday morning's session was devoted to a discussion of the public regulation of railroads, and gave rise to the liveliest debate of the meeting. Charles A. Prouty of the Interstate Commerce Commission presented the case for a more effective national regulation, taking the ground that the main feature of the railway problem is no longer discriminations, but actual and possible extortions in rates, that effective regulation accordingly demands the establishment of a commission with power to adjust rates, subject to review and enforcement by special tribunal or commerce court. Vigorous dissent from these conclusions was made by Walter D. Hines, Vice-President of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad, who argued that the Interstate Commerce Commission is neither an expert nor an impartial tribunal, as is proved by its decisions and the action of the courts upon them. It is unnecessary, unwise, and unjust, to give such a tribunal practically final power over the private capital invested in railroads. At present the mistakes of the railroads can be adequately corrected in the courts; under the proposed method, the mistakes of the Commission could not be corrected anywhere. Prof. E. R. Johnson of the University of Pennsylvania, Prof. B. H. Meyer of the University of Wisconsin, and J. Shirley Eaton, statistician of the Lehigh Valley Railroad, continued the discussion along stimulating and profitable lines.

A more pacific tone dominated the third session on Saturday afternoon, devoted to economic theory, with principal papers by Prof. J. B. Clark of Columbia University, and C. W. Macfarlane of Philadelphia. Professor Clark presented the first fruit of his eagerly awaited studies on the dynamic theory of distribution in an acute paper on "The Dynamics of the Wages Question." Wages are always tending toward a standard fixed by the productive power of labor, and this standard rises as the productive power of labor increases. The actual pay of labor also rises, but it lags behind the standard by a certain interval. Whenever this interval grows larger in consequence of a change that raises the standard towards which wages are tending, labor is benefited; but whenever the interval is enlarged by an influence that thrusts the pay of labor downward or retards its natural rise, labor is, of course, injured. The latter part of the paper was devoted to a subtle analysis of the influence of monopoly upon the approximation of the actual to the standard wage. Mr. Macfarlane's paper on "Distribution by a Law of Rent" was a closely reasoned examination of the arguments by which Professor Clark has elsewhere endeavored to show that interest and wages may be reduced to a differential or rent form.

The fourth and fifth sessions on Monday morning and afternoon, respectively, were devoted to a discussion of the problems and aims of organized labor, and were on the whole disappointing in quality. This was due in part to the absence of John Mitchell, Dr. Felix Adler, and Prof. George Gunton, who were to have contributed to the debate. But even those papers which were presented and the discussion which they occasioned failed in any degree to satisfy, and possessed at best a "documentary" value. A paper on "The Union Shop," by Henry White of the United Garment Workers, was a calm, forcible presentation of the labor side that contrasted favorably with a remarkable literary production of Frank K. Foster of the Massachusetts Federation of Labor. Altogether, the discussion impressed the thoughtful mind with the utterly inadequate basis upon which current generalizations on the labor question are made, with the urgent need of detailed scientific study of the history, structure, and functions of labor organizations in the United States.

The final session of the meeting on Monday evening was again held with the historians, with "Currency Problems in the Orient" as the principal topic. Prof. J. W. Jenks of Cornell University reviewed the recent currency experiences of India and the Far East, and concluded that the introduction of the American standard in the Philippines would probably result in a decided cutting in wages and a sudden fall in prices, which would doubtless have a somewhat seriously demoralizing effect. On the other hand, if we were to adopt the plan now proposed in Congress, of using the silver peso—not materially different in weight from the Mexican dollar, to which the natives are accustomed—with a fixed value equal to that of half an American dollar, the chances are that this peso would practically take the place of the Mexican dollar. Under these circumstances, there would probably be a slight increase in wages as well as a slight increase in prices of products, but on the whole the change could be made with practically no shock to business and with the gain rather to the Filipinos than to the larger dealers. G. Bruce Webster, New York agent of the Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China, inclined to the retention of the silver standard in the Philippines, but, short of that, favored a plan akin to the one outlined above. Charles A. Conant presented anew the arguments for the system of insular currency associated with his name. Horace White sounded a warning note against introducing "the limping standard," with its recognized defects and inconveniences, into new territory.

The officers of the Association reported a gratifying increase in membership, a satisfactory condition of the treasury, and an encouraging growth in scientific effective-

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ness and in practical usefulness. The difficult question of publication policy was discussed at length and finally referred to the Executive Committee, with instructions to formulate a plan for presentation at the next annual meeting. Professor Seligman was reëlected to the presidency, and New Orleans and the Christmas recess of 1903 were selected as the place and time of the next annual meeting, to be held again jointly with the American Historical Association. J. H. H.

PALÉOLOGUE'S ROME.

PARIS, December 17, 1902.

I had occasion not long ago to speak of an essay on Alfred de Vigny, by M. Paléologue, one of our most delicate writers, in the series of the "Grands Écrivains de la France," published by Hachette. It is always a pleasure to read M. Paléologue, for he has a sort of refinement which is becoming very rare in our day of newspaper literature; he easily becomes poetical, though he always remains precise and accurate. He has just published a volume on Rome, with the modest sub-title of "Notes on History and Art." Who has not been tempted to write something about Rome after having visited this unique city, which Byron so justly called the "city of the soul"? Goethe wrote, after his visit there: "All that was to me till the present day but vain word and written tradition, becomes here a living conception." Ampère, who remained several years in Rome, where he was detained by the health of a very charming and delicate friend, occupied his leisure hours in writing his 'Promenades dans Rome,' a book which cannot be too highly recommended to those who wish to gain an intimate knowledge of the Eternal City.

The danger in writing a book on Rome is of falling more or less into the dulness of a guide-book. Not that a guide-book is necessarily dull: there are some, especially on Italy and Rome, which can be read with great pleasure; but it is difficult, when you have to mention churches, galleries, pictures, statues, to avoid a certain sort of monotony, M. Paléologue would himself probably confess that he has not entirely freed himself from this inevitable monotony; he has, however, succeeded in writing a very readable book, very attractive to those who have visited the places and admired the works of art which he describes; readable even to those who have not had this privilege, and whom he will undoubtedly inspire with the desire to visit Rome. He tells us very candidly beforehand that his account of Rome is incomplete—he speaks only of what he has seen; his book is a sort of journal of his visits, and has therefore all the freshness and vivacity of an immediate impression.

Whoever has been in Rome will always cherish a mental image of the Forum.

"In no other place," justly says M. Paléologue, "is this effect of resurrection more striking than in the Forum; in no other place have the monuments and their sites kept more intact their regenerative power. Thirteen centuries of history are evoked there in animated images, in speaking figures, in tumultuous pictures. . . . Religious ceremonies, popular assemblies, political trials, popular risings, feasts, funerals, triumphal processions, all the passions and the scenes of old, are formed again before the mind, by a clear and rapid intuition as by a direct view."

For some years the old Forum has been delivered to the archæologists. Its soil has been upturned, and a sort of reconstruction of the monuments of the past has been attempted. I confess regretting the Forum in its abandoned and deserted state, its meadows, its soft profiles, its solitude, which left in the mind a sentiment of profound melancholy. Still, I cannot blame those who have made researches in the strata accumulated by centuries, in order to discover what remained of the past. The last time I saw Rome, the whole surface of the Forum was dotted with broken columns, with ruins which marked the limits of the temples. M. Paléologue connects all these remains with history, and in this way he avoids some of the tedium of a mere guide-book. He makes us enter into the political activity of the Forum; he shows us the plan of the Rostrum, explains how the primitive Rostrum was placed near the patrician Comitium, and was in the time of Cæsar transported to the centre of the Forum. "The political thought which inspired Cæsar in changing the place of the tribune becomes evident when you inspect the site. To transport the Rostrum to the low Forum was to take away from the Comitium; it was a new step towards the *plebs;* it was the consummation of the rupture with aristocratic traditions; it was at the same time the last blow to the memories of liberty." The old Rostrum had heard Scipio, the Gracchi, Marius, Sulla, Cato; Cæsar's Rostrum heard the Philippics; it saw Cæsar's corpse before it was burned, the head of Cicero which was exhibited by his murderers, by order of Antony. Antony's wife, Fulvia, seized the head of the great orator by the hair. "With a truly feminine ferocity," says M. Paléologue, "she spat on it, took a pin out of her hair, and stuck it many times into the eyes and face."

In the Basilica of Constantine, which shows its majestic ruins in the Forum, we find an architectural type quite different from the old Roman. The vault begins to show itself instead of the horizontal roofs. The vaults were supported by gigantic columns. We miss the inner decoration, which was very rich.

"This immense ruin," says M. Paléologue, "one of the most picturesque in Rome, is also one which gives the best idea of Roman greatness. When the Emperor Maxentius laid the foundation of the edifice (in the year 300 A. D.), indescribable disorder reigned in the State. Since the reign of Gallienus, the decadence had made terrible progress. The Barbarians were crossing the frontiers on every side. In the beautiful and prophetic words of Tacitus, 'The Fates pressed the Empire everywhere' (*urgentibus imperii fatis*). Before long the fortunate rival of Maxentius, Constantine, was to transfer the capital to the shores of the Bosphorus. Nevertheless, Rome continued to impress on its monuments an indestructible character of boldness, largeness, and sumptuosity."

Who does not know the harmonious Arch of Titus, with its columns and the curious soffit representing the triumph of Titus and the spoils of the Temple of Jerusalem? The Arch of Constantine marks a critical period in the moral history of Rome. It bears these lines: "To the very great Emperor Cæsar Flavius Constantinus, who, by the inspiration of Divinity [*instinctæ divinitatis*], has avenged the Empire on the tyrant, etc."

"Who," asks M. Paléologue, "was the Divinity? Was it pagan? was it the God of the Christians? The vagueness of the formula betrays embarrassment. Immediately after his victory over Maxentius, Constantine was not wholly won over to Christianity; at most he was inclined to it. The great majority of the populace remained faithful to the ancient faith. The altars of paganism still received the official homage, and, as in the time of the Republic, the images of the gods continued to be borne in front of the legions. On the other hand, the Gospel was making marvellous progress. Surely the future was there. In adopting an ambiguous formula, the new master of Rome did not compromise himself. As he wounded no opinion, he ran the chance of conciliating them all."

Such remarks, which interrupt the mere descriptions, give a peculiar interest to M. Paléologue's volume. It makes us read history in the monuments. We cannot follow him everywhere, to the House of Augustus, to the imperial palaces, to the Palatine, to the Coliseum; all these have an historical as well as an artistic interest. Vespasian built the Coliseum in order to flatter the multitude and efface from its mind the memory of Nero, by an amphitheatre of extraordinary size and luxury. Titus continued his work, and employed the Jewish prisoners whom he had brought from Judæa. The great shows were inaugurated in it only by his successor, Domitian.

The history of Agrippa's Pantheon is very interesting. This monument has excited in all ages the greatest curiosity. It certainly inspired the architect of the Baptistery of Florence, and also Bramante when he conceived the plan of St. Peter's. Raphael worked in it.

"The artist is buried in one of its chapels, restored by himself. A Virgin, of which he had sketched the model and which was made by his pupil Lorenzetto, surmounts the altar. There is such a vivid feeling of antiquity in this statue that one thinks one can recognize under her veil a Venus of Milo. Near the master sleep the disciples, Baldassare Peruzzi, Giovanni da Udine, Perino del Vaga, the flower of the Roman school."

I pass over much which I can but recommend to the reader—the Forum of Trajan and Trajan's Column, the Baths of Caracalla, the Aventine, a number of churches (especially Saint John Lateran, Santa Maria Maggiore), the Castle of St. Angelo—and proceed at once to the Vatican, where Raphael and Michelangelo long detain M. Paléologue.

"When you reach the Piazza of Saint Peter, you have some difficulty in evoking the horrible drama of the year 65, the Christians delivered to the beasts, the women exposed in the arena, . . . and, in the end, to illuminate the nocturnal feast, the martyrs burnt alive in pitch. How can we imagine this horrible spectacle in a square of such pompous majesty, in front of this theatrical façade, between two solemn porticos?"

Michelangelo's "Pietà," which is in Saint Peter's, was begun when the artist was only twenty-three years old, in 1498. "It was at one of the most sombre moments of his life. . . . His master and friend, Savonarola, had been burnt a few weeks before on the scaffold. This probably explains the striking emotion of his work." Michelangelo began in 1508, at the age of thirty-three, the decoration of the Sistine Chapel, which he made world-famous. Many are the books which have been written on this decoration, which is so grand, so enormous

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in its size, so varied, that it can hardly be conceived as the work of a single man. Who does not know, if only by engravings, the Creation of the World, the Creation of Man, Adam, Eve, the Sacrifice of Cain, the Deluge, Noah, and all those pages of the Old Testament, in the sublime interpretation of Michelangelo? Who has not meditated before the Precursors of Christ, the Prophets, the Sibyls, superhuman figures of colossal size? And who has not admired the vast composition of the Last Judgment? I can only say that M. Paléologue gives a very correct description of the great work of the Sistine, as well as of Raphael's work in the Stanze of the Vatican. What a time it was when two such men could labor for the glorification of Rome! These two names are immortal, like the name of Rome itself.

Correspondence.

COLOR AND CRIMINALITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In answer to Mr. Du Bois: According to the census of 1890, the illiterate negroes constitute 56.76 per cent. of the whole negro population. If education lessened criminality, the illiterate negro criminals should furnish a much larger percentage of the whole criminal negro population. But they furnish only 54.31 per cent. Educated negroes form 43.24 per cent. of the whole negro population and 45.69 per cent. of negro criminals.—I am, sir, etc. W. H. B.

THE FILIPINO LABORER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of yesterday you refer to a letter from an officer, now in the Philippines, who, as you say, "writes us in opposition to the theory that the Filipinos will not perform manual labor."

Between 1852 and 1888 I spent more than twenty years in the Philippines. During those years all the agricultural labor was done by Filipinos. The crops of rice, tobacco, sugar, and hemp (*abaca*) were all raised by them. The labor in cleaning hemp is still all done by them. From Warner, Barnes & Co.'s circular of November 15, 1902, I see that the receipts of hemp for the year up to that date had amounted to 736,942 bales of eight to the ton weight. The very profitable work on the hemp plantations has induced many natives to neglect rice-growing for the more certain and profitable work on hemp, but, up to 1862, rice was grown in such quantities as to be exported. In my time all the stevedore work on board ship was done by natives, and the hemp presses in the provinces were all worked by Filipinos.

I got once a good lesson in manners from an old Filipino. I was overseeing some work which went slowly and not to my liking. I slung out at the men the word "Brutos!" (brutes). The old fellow approached me politely, and said: "I beg your worship's pardon; we are not 'brutos,' but we do not understand the language your worship uses." I apologized, and I hope never so failed in sense and politeness again.

The admission of Chinese would be a social, moral, and political danger; but this is too large a theme for my letter, which is only to confirm from my own exceptionally long and wide experience what your correspondent has told you.—I am, sir,

Yours faithfully,

Ogden E. Edwards.

1906 H Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., January 2, 1903.

Notes.

Dr. Aurel Stein's narrative of his Central Asian explorations in 1900, to which we made reference last week, is to be published in London by T. Fisher Unwin, under the title, 'Sand-Buried Ruins of Khotan.' The photographic illustration will be very copious.

Henry Holt & Co. have concluded to publish Kerner and Oliver's 'Natural History of Plants' in two volumes hereafter, instead of four parts, and at a reduced price, which is effected by leaving out the colored illustrations.

Two very sumptuous volumes from the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons reproduce articles on 'Famous Families of New York,' originally contributed to the *Evening Post* by Margherita A. Hamm; but they have been both revised and extended, and, what is more, they are now accompanied by a great many illustrations, many of which have never been published before. The sub-title, "Historical and Biographical Sketches of Families which, in Successive Generations, have been identified with the Development of the Nation," exhibits the point of view; and as not a little of the information conveyed has been furnished or certified by the existing representatives of the families in question, we get something like a glorified 'Who's Who.' Portraiture from generation to generation is always instructive, and there is plenty of it here. Pedigrees under the conditions of the present work can hardly be interesting reading, and, in fact, Miss Hamm's chapters are rather for reference than for literary delectation. There is an index to this liberally printed and handsomely bound work.

We make a too tardy acknowledgment of the second volume of the new issue of 'Chambers's Cyclopædia of English Literature' (Philadelphia: Lippincott), edited by Dr. David Patrick, with very competent associates. It closes with the Scottish vernacular writers under George III. American literature is reserved for a separate division, and will be considered with that of the British colonies. The up-to-date character of this revision is shown in a reference, under Lady Anne Barnard, to her South African letters published in 1901; and, under Erasmus Darwin, to Santos-Dumont and H. G. Wells as anticipated by that poet's famous prophecy of the steam-driven balloon; but Maxim, with his belligerent aerostat, was equally preindicated:

"Or warrior-bands alarm the gaping crowd,
And armies shrink beneath the shadowy cloud."

May the Hague Tribunal deliver us from this! The space given to E. Darwin, by the way, is considerable—about a third of what Burns gets; for obvious reasons.

R. H. Russell sends us 'Pictures of Romance and Wonder, by Sir Edward Burne-Jones, Bart.,' which contains twelve plates, by some unnamed photographic process, loosely tacked to gray mounts, and about forty half-tone cuts, besides a very weird portrait of the artist. The selection is fairly representative, containing many of Burne-Jones's best things as well as some of his worst. Except for a brief introduction, by Fitzroy Carrington, the text consists entirely of scraps of verse and prose from various authors. Sometimes these are the sources of the artist's inspiration, sometimes they have been written to illustrate the pictures, while now and then the connection seems slight enough. We must regret that there is no indication of the date or whereabouts of the originals, or of their material or purpose. Early work is mingled with late, oil pictures and watercolors are mixed with black-and-white drawings and designs for tapestry and stained glass, so that any one not already well acquainted with the artist's work is likely to be left with considerable confusion of mind as to his style and his ideals.

Mr. Edward S. Farrow, at one time a lieutenant in the army, presents in 'Camping on the Trail' (Philadelphia: Am. Arms Pub. Co.) a small volume, derived from his own experience and the reports of others, excellent for the novice and serviceable for the experienced. For those who read from curiosity, it illustrates a mode of life whose range is narrowing, and to the writers of the wilder Western fiction it yields abundant local color for stories of pursuers and pursued. Had the author's experience not lain entirely in the Northwest, he would have placed the agave (American aloe) of the South at the head of his list of antiscorbutics; and with somewhat better taste there would have been less reference to himself as devising equipage and directing scouts. Were the book indexed, its practical value for reference would be vastly increased.

'Nature and the Camera,' by A. R. Dugmore (Doubleday, Page & Co.), shows how the author secures the excellent photographs that have brought him favorable notice during the last two years. To put to practical use the information given here, one needs, however, considerable previous experience with a camera. In an introductory chapter, Mr. Dugmore gives suggestions about an outfit. For work with birds and other quickly moving animals, he recommends a camera that can be focussed on the subject at the same time that the plate is ready for exposure. The graflex instrument has thus far proved the most satisfactory. For catching animals in rapid motion, when instantaneous exposure is necessary, he advises the use of the focal plane shutter. This works directly in front of the plate, and allows the minimum time of exposure with the maximum illumination. He shows the advantages of a camera with a long focus and of one with a back focus instead of a front focus, and gives some space to the use of telephoto lenses, to the time of exposure, and to developing and printing. He recommends isochromatic plates for subjects that have much color, and explains the use of reflecting screens to soften shadows. The main part of the book gives detailed instruction in photographing birds, mammals, reptiles, batrachians, fish, insects, and flowers. The text is profusely and beautifully illustrated by the author's pictures.

CARNEGIE BRANCH.
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'The Open-Air Boy,' by G. M. A. Hewett (R. F. Fenno & Co.), describes experiences of the English boy who likes camping and all the sports of woods and fields. Mr. Hewett sympathizes with a boy's propensity to capture and collect, and writes with much detail about trapping, bird's-nesting, fishing, "ratting," and "rabbiting." He does not attempt to give much instruction in natural history except in the chapters on collecting moths and butterflies and rearing caterpillars. He writes in a friendly, familiar way, but his style lapses often into carelessness. The book will interest American boys, though much of it cannot directly appeal to their own experience.

The beginnings of a credit-paper currency may be studied in the handsome volume of 'Tracts relating to the Currency of the Massachusetts Bay, 1682-1720,' which Andrew McFarland Davis has published through Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Eighteen very rare tracts, of some of which only a single copy is known, are here reprinted, with title-pages in facsimile, and notes. The arrangement is chronological, and in one case some interesting contemporary comments are printed, found in manuscript in a copy of the pamphlet. The reader is thus able to trace the gradual rise of the suggestion to issue paper money in Massachusetts, and the development of controversy as the demand for more issues became stronger and the evils of depreciation were more felt. The value of this collection lies in the economic as well as in the historical aspect, and no one who possesses Mr. Davis's excellent 'History of Currency and Banking in Massachusetts Bay' can do without this new compilation. No one who would appreciate the insidious growth of a "cheap money" idea, or measure its disastrous moral and economic effects, can find a better example for study than is here unfolded. Typographically, the book is highly to be praised.

Friederike Merck's 'Unser Liederbuch,' though originating on this side of the water, has had such success in Germany as to warrant a sequel with the same title (Mainz: B. Schott's Söhne; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). As before, the children's songs with music are framed in borders of appropriate colored designs, possessing the true German sentiment, and sometimes a whole page is monopolized by the artist. The pictorial portion will please any child of any nationality. Mrs. Merck's selection now leaves the better-known field, and this still further recommends it. The military element could not be wholly wanting (even Blücher is resurrected), but the seasons, bird and flower, slumber and prayer, sports, home-leaving, the pixies, constitute the mass of this interesting set of songs.

The handsome and far from meagre 'List of Bibliographies of Special Subjects,' just issued by the John Crerar Library of Chicago, is confined in its scope to that institution's collections, but will be thankfully received by librarians of high and low degree. The arrangement within the classes is strictly of the library and the shelf, and the key to the maze must be sought in the index. The leading classification is into Social Sciences, Physical Sciences, Natural Sciences, Applied Sciences, Fine Arts, History and Geography. One useful feature is the inclusion of "general indexes to periodicals covering more than two years, whether the periodicals themselves contain bibliographical material or not, and the catalogues of special libraries, which often are valuable as bibliographies." Since the *Nation* Index of the late W. M. Griswold is honored with admission under the former head, we may note that the Supplement (October, 1880-1885) is apparently not in the Library's possession, to say nothing of the complementary 'Political Record, 1865-1882' by the same unwearied friend of this journal. Nearly all the entries are annotated; and occasionally, as in the case of collaboration such as a *Festschrift*, the contents are analyzed. The publication is worthy of high praise.

When one of our distinguished statesmen eulogized the hog as the great American civilizer, his utterance was set down by an unfeeling world to Western bumptiousness. It may comfort us, therefore, to learn that others too can take our quadruped seriously. We read in a very recent number of Hinrichs's weekly catalogue the following announcement: "Andree, L. Das Schwein in poetischer, mitologischer (*sic!*), und sittengeschichtlichen Bedeutung. Paris: Verlag Zürcher Discussionen. (3 francs.)"

While in *Man*, "a monthly record of anthropological science," for December, 1902, the noted scholar in Japanese and Korean, Mr. W. G. Aston, properly points out the worthlessness of Kaempfer, the compiler, as an authority on Shinto, notwithstanding frequent quotations from his book by recent writers, showing that "the only safe rule for the student of anthropology and religion is to disregard everything that has been written before Sir Ernest Satow's accurate and scholarly contributions to the Japan Asiatic Society's Transactions in 1874-1881," the reputation of Von Siebold rises. The Japanese, with justice and appropriate gratitude, have reared on their own soil to this far worthier foreign scholar and genuine investigator no fewer than six memorials in stone. In the Transactions of the German Asiatic Society of Japan, volume ix., part i., Dr. H. ten Kate prints a paper describing these monuments and giving the inscriptions, with the aid of photographic half-tones. In two instances, Thunberg shares with Von Siebold the honors of memorial, the form of which is either an inscribed boulder or partially smoothed upright stone. These are duly inscribed in German, Latin, Chinese, and Japanese. Dr. Miura treats in the same number of Japanese "physiogonomy," adding a table of the Japanese open hand, showing how the palmistry of the Orient compares with that of the Occident. Whereas the topography, elevations, and depressions of the palm in the West take on the old classic mythological names, Oriental palmistry borrows its descriptive terminology for the circle or border of the palm from the eight points of the compass, while the three central valleys or creases are from "heaven, earth, and man." Dr. Krusen has an exhaustive paper on the higher class of Japanese prisons, giving in illustration the ground plans of those at Osaka, Yokohama, and Tokio. Dr. Lehmann writes of the culture and handling of tobacco in Japan. Professor Ishikawa tells of the Japanese salamander and the limits of its range, while Professor Florenz reviews two Japanese grammatical works, thus finishing nearly six-score pages of an unusually rich number of this valuable serial.

The recent death in Tokio, at the age of seventy-five, of Prof. S. Nishimura, one of Japan's most eminent scholars and reformers, recalls the rapidly dwindling numbers of the famous club in Tokio, the Mei Roku Sha, founded, as its name imports, in the sixth year of Meiji (1873). Mr. Nishimura was a student of Dutch in the forties, and ever a fearless Liberal, favoring intercourse with foreigners even before the Perry treaty, and when such opinions made one a target for the assassin. His famous book, 'A View of Western History,' published in 1869, helped materially to sway Japan into the path of progress on Occidental lines. He served in the educational department until 1886, when he was appointed Court Councillor and principal of the Noble Ladies' School. In 1890 the Emperor named him a life member of the House of Peers, but he resigned in 1892, to occupy himself with literary labors, becoming the author of twenty-one original works and the maker of six translations. Besides Nishimura, the Mei Roku Sha included such scholars as Fukuzawa; Mori, Minister of Education and the Mikado's envoy to Washington and London; Nakamura, early translator of Mill on 'Liberty' and founder of a flourishing school and (virtually) of the first party, out of which grew the Progressists; Kato, President of the Imperial University and now of the House of Peers, philosopher and ethical writer; the two Mitsukuri brothers, and many others of national and international renown, whose writings have educated the new generation. For many years the publications of this club formed a rich storehouse of intellectual pabulum and stimulus. The club still holds its monthly meetings in Tokio, though but two of the original members survive.

The Gordon Memorial College at Khartum has received an important addition to its equipment in some chemical and bacteriological research laboratories. The general aim of this department is to promote technical education; its special ends being to advance the study of tropical diseases, to aid criminal investigations in poisoning cases (which are frequent in the Sudan), and to promote the industrial development of the country. The success of the college, which was formally opened by Lord Kitchener a few weeks ago, seems to be assured, for in 1901 there were five elementary schools in or near Khartum, in which 150 boys were preparing for admission to the college. At the farewell dinner given in London to Dr. Andrew Balfour of Edinburgh, who has been appointed Director of the Laboratories, the announcement was made that "the commission sent out by the Foreign Office and the London School of Tropical Medicine to consider the disease called sleeping-sickness in Uganda had already discovered the germ and cause of that disease."

—We commend to our readers an article on the "War against Disease," contributed to the January *Atlantic* by Dr. Winslow, instructor in sanitary bacteriology in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The writer shows not only what exact knowledge can do in making possible the prevention or cure of many of the most deadly diseases, but also the possibility of such effective popular education as will secure to the masses the benefit of this knowledge. In the city of Buffalo, for instance, the

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Health Commissioner undertook to reduce the rate of infant mortality by two specific measures—a careful supervision of the milk supply, and the distribution of printed instructions on the care of infants to every family in which a birth was reported. In 1898 the mortality of children under five years was only one-half what it had been in 1890, just before this work began. Particularly encouraging are Dr. Winslow's remarks concerning tuberculosis. He pronounces it emphatically a non-inheritable malady and easily curable in its initial stages. It is to be fought chiefly along the line of general improvement in sanitary conditions, household cleanliness, good ventilation, outdoor air, exercise, and healthful food. The happy feature about all this is that, while securing practical immunity from the germs of tuberculosis, it can but improve the moral and physical well-being of the individual and the community in a dozen other directions at the same time. Harriet Waters Preston performs the traditional office of the critic—"Thou ailest here, and here"—upon the recent novels of Howells and James. Allowing them to be the two most considerable American novelists since Hawthorne, she holds that both belied their native bent by adopting early in their careers the then new fashion of exhaustive study of comparatively mean subjects. Howells holds his reader by his personal charm, not the charm of his story. Take the personal amenity of the author from 'The Kentons,' and there remains a thin and pointless tale, describing with tedious particularity the languid interaction of a half-dozen utterly insignificant puppets, with absolutely nothing in the story itself to commend it. As for Mr. James, "Never, surely, in English drawingrooms or anywhere else, please God! did living beings actually converse after the manner of Mr. James's characters."

—Willis Gibson opens the January *Scribner* with an article on the Mississippi, "The Old Route to Orleans," with eleven full-page drawings by Jules Guérin. On the historical side the paper might have been strengthened by a fuller account of the old flatboating days, before the introduction of the steamer, when the boatmen tramped back northward through the forest with their rifles and their bags of gold. Mr. Gibson is mistaken in his assumption that when oared barges took the place of rafts for transporting produce down the river, these barges were regularly rowed back up again. When the distance was great, it was cheaper to sacrifice the barges and build anew. A fuller description of present-day coal boating would also have added interest, at a time when the transportation of coal by rail has attracted so much attention; and no article on any American river of to-day can be held complete without some consideration of the "shanty-boat" life which has developed to such practically annoying and sociologically interesting proportions during the past quarter-century. The Editor takes up the defence of the American reader against Mr. Howells's recent complaint that he will not be interested in plain types of "every-day Americans," but must have knights and ladies disporting themselves in a make-believe past, or moving in the glamour of a present-day Newport. The defence is, in effect, that the reader wants in his fiction characters that will make an impression upon him. Now the types chosen by Mr. Howells do make impressions upon Mr. Howells, or they would not be chosen; but the average reader is not attuned as Mr. Howells, and will continue to seek the desirable impression where it may be found. In the Field of Art, Mr. Russell Sturgis makes the recent Public Library exhibition of American wood-engravings the text for a discriminating paper on the growth and present condition of the art of engraving in America.

—The group of "artistic photographers," under the leadership of Alfred Stieglitz, who have seceded from *Camera Notes* and started an organ of their own, are thoroughly artistic in the terms of their prospectus. *Camera Work* is to be published quarterly, but that is the only definite statement made. "The management binds itself to no stated size or fixed number of illustrations, though subscribers may feel assured of receiving the full equivalent of their subscriptions"; and "the right to increase the price of subscription without notice is reserved." What you are to get, and what you are to pay for it, must equally be taken on trust. The first number is a thin quarto of sixty-five pages, handsomely printed on heavy paper, and contains eight plates. At least that is the number in our copy, Mrs. Käsebier's "Portrait (Miss N.)" appearing only in the list of illustrations prefixed to the article on her work. Besides her five, there is a plate after Mr. Stieglitz, and another, of young birds, after Mr. A. Radclyffe Dugmore. All these are excellently reproduced by the Photochrome Engraving Company, and are insets, printed on various kinds of paper and placed on mounts of different tints. The eighth plate contains two half-tone reproductions from paintings by D. W. Tryon and Puvis de Chavannes, used to illustrate an article on "Repetition with Slight Variation" as a principle of composition. On the whole, the purchaser of this number will get his money's worth. In the text there is singularly little about lenses or plates or chemicals, and a great deal about art. These gentlemen are trying to make photography into one of the fine arts, or to prove that it is already a fine art, and they take themselves and their effort with becoming seriousness. They do not hesitate to credit each other with "genius," and to speak of "great" works and "masterpieces" and of "idealistic" treatment of the nude. At this rate they should be thought to be not only artists, but far better artists than most of our painters; and one article would seem to prove that they are aware of this, for it is devoted to showing how lamentably the poor painters, who would hardly claim to be geniuses, have failed in "The Pursuit of the Pictorial Ideal."

—The final volume of the 'Letters to Washington,' published by the Colonial Dames of America, under the editorship of S. M. Hamilton (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), includes the correspondence from May, 1774, to July, 1775. The land interests of Washington on the Ohio, and the so-called Dunmore's War, which was little else than a vulgar land speculation, are prominent in the earlier letters. In that connection the agencies of Valentine Crawford and Dr. John Connolly, afterwards of some notoriety, occupy attention. The obstacles to making new settlements on these Western lands are well brought out in Crawford's letters, and the vexatious behavior of the indentured servants sent on these ventures cost Washington a pretty penny, and in the end ruined the attempts. His miller, Simpson, writes entertainingly and in phonetic spelling of his troubles, and all through the volumes glimpses may be had of Washington as farmer, fisherman, miller, and trustee. The beginnings of industry are indicated in Johnson's letter on hemp (p. 83), and Stewart's suggestion for cultivating madder in America (p. 75); while the early effort to construct the Potomac Canal, with Ballendine as contractor, is of more than local interest. Such matters, however, gradually give place to the approaching Revolution, and military matters begin to engage Washington's time, money, and thoughts. He was much in demand in the companies of colonial militia, and he could have been in command of Virginia's troops had not the Continental Congress called him to the head of its army. A very elaborate index atones for whatever errors are to be found in the text, and the undertakers of this patriotic service deserve the gratitude of those desirous to acquaint themselves with the earlier years of Washington's career and the last years of colonial Virginia.

—It is a pleasure to read Dr. Samuel A. Green's latest volume, entitled 'Ten Facsimile Reproductions relating to New England," and issued in a limited edition. The author has enjoyed special opportunities for acquiring unique examples of the issues of the early presses of New England, and from a fragment he can tell many an interesting story in bibliography and biography. A good example of his method and skill in tracing the history of a hitherto unidentified tract is to be found in the second essay of this volume. A pamphlet without a title-page or imprint, and with only a running-title as a guide, is traced to the earliest American poet, Benjamin Tompson (1642-1714), and the year of publication is approximately determined. An English variant is found which has such curious features as "M. J. Antonomies," intended for the Indian sachem Miantonomo. The study of this production leads up to unique copies of two elegies by Tompson, which are given in facsimile. One of them is entitled "A Neighbour's Tears Sprinkled on the Dust of the Amiable Virgin, Mrs. Rebekah Sewall," and is surrounded by the unnecessarily gruesome border used for such solemn productions. Some facts relating to the subjects of these elegies and some additional matter on John Foster, the printer, complete an essay that is full of careful research and true bibliographical enthusiasm. The facsimiles, being heliotypes, are very distinct and admirable.

—The other reproductions possess a varied value in themselves, enhanced by the comment of Dr. Green. A map of Massachusetts made in 1637, the seat of war near Boston in 1775, an excellent English map by an unknown engraver drawn shortly after the battle of Bunker Hill, and Rufus Putnam's plan of the towns in Worcester County, prepared in 1785, add something to historical geography. Boston is represented in the list of names of its streets, 1708, and the picture of State Street in 1801, while

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a reproduction of the stamp issued under the Stamp Act of 1765 enables the writer to correct certain misconceptions as to its real nature. Groton has its share in the volume in Dr. Prescott's plan of the town, 1794, and Harvard University naturally enjoys prominence in connection with the essay on Stephen Daye, the pioneer printer in the American colonies of Great Britain. Daye's career is traced from some legal documents discovered by Dr. Green; and although the issues from his press never bore his name, a list of them is given so far as they are now known. Of these issues, examples of only eight have been traced. The meagre records relating to Daye have been skilfully used, and much is added relating to the early history of printing in Cambridge. The name of Daye's son, Matthew, appears on the title-page of the almanac for 1647, "the single example where a printer's name appears on the title-page before Green took charge of the press in 1649." The present volume is a credit to writer and printer.

—Those who think that the French are still far behind the Germans in solid historical work will find matter for reflection in a report on 'L'État Actuel des Études d'Histoire Moderne en France,' originally prepared by MM. P. Caron and Ph. Sagnac for the International Congress of the Historical Sciences which was to have been held last April at Rome. This report gives a critical estimate of the work of the principal historical societies of France and of the *sociétés savantes* which do some historical work; it also describes the historical reviews and the collections of documents now in course of publication. After characterizing the training for investigation offered in the universities, both at Paris and in the provinces, the authors finally pass in review each field of history since the Renaissance, to note the progress of investigation; the parts still neglected, and the works of synthesis which have sought to bring together the results gained by individuals. On the whole, the review is suggestive and fair. It takes no account of what was done in France prior to 1875, for the authors believe that, save by men like De Tocqueville and Quinet, there was little thorough work. They think that the present school, particularly under the leadership of Professor Aulard, is investigating even the most stormy incidents of the Revolution with the same impartiality that the mediævalist takes to his subject. Unhappily, there is no method which has the magical art of making fair-minded those deeply moved by either political or religious prejudices, and MM. Caron and Sagnac illustrate this fact themselves in their inability to refrain from unnecessarily harsh criticism of such books as those of M. Funck-Brentano on 'L'Affaire du Collier' and 'La Mort de la Reine.' In this case it was not so much a faulty method as the reactionary attitude towards the Revolution that sharpened their pens. But a little spice of prejudice like this furnishes its own corrective and does not impair the value of their general account. Several of their incidental discussions are suggestive. For example, they argue that the time is past when even so able a review as the *Revue Historique* can cover the whole field, and they urge the creation of special reviews which shall not print articles, but shall include simply criticisms, notes on methodology and bibliography, discussions of the value of documents, and descriptions of historical work actually in progress. All this is in the line of a more effective organization of historical studies the world over, which it was the aim of their report to promote.

TOSCANELLI AND COLUMBUS.

La Lettre et la Carte de Toscanelli sur la Route des Indes par l'Ouest : Étude Critique sur l'authenticité et la valeur de ces documents et sur les sources des idées cosmographiques de Colomb. Par Henri Vignaud. Paris, 1901. (Recueil de Voyages et de Documents pour servir à l'histoire de la Géographie, No. XVIII.) 8vo, pp. 319. 2 facsimiles.

Toscanelli and Columbus. The Letter and Chart . . . sent in 1474 to the Portuguese Fernam Martins, and later on to Christopher Columbus. By Henry Vignaud. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. 365. Map, facsimiles and tables.

The books about Columbus all tell how he received a letter from a certain Toscanelli, described as an eminent Florentine savant, and state that this letter inspired the Genoese sailor with the determination to make a voyage westward across the Atlantic. In an age as rationalistic as the present, it is inevitable that some one should doubt whether this Toscanelli letter had the preponderant influence ordinarily ascribed to it. It is equally inevitable that some one of the investigators who are striving to find out something new about the period of great discoveries, should suggest that the said letter never was written at all. In his preface, Mr. Vignaud says that this latter idea, which forms the subject of his volumes, was given to him by M. de la Rosa, who, having sown the seed, very cleverly allowed Mr. Vignaud to cultivate it and to reap the credit, and whatever else, that may come from the public presentation of this decidedly novel theory.

The elements of the story of the Toscanelli letter are easily summarized. In 1571 there was printed in Venice the Italian 'Historie' of the life of Columbus, said to have been written by his son Ferdinand, in which the text of the letter appears, with a statement that it inspired the discoverer with the purpose to make his westward voyage. The same statement, given as a personal opinion, was made more than twenty years earlier by Las Casas in his 'Historia,' which was not printed until 1875, although it had repeatedly been used before that date in manuscript by historical writers. A Latin transcript of the letter was found in 1871 by Henry Harrisse in a volume which once belonged to Columbus, who wrote numerous annotations on the margins of its pages. The letter, which has thus been preserved in Italian, Spanish, and Latin versions, all made before 1571, consists of a courteous, undated note, covering a copy of a letter written in 1474 to a hanger-on at the Portuguese court. The note is in answer to a request for information and advice, and states that the writer, Toscanelli, can best answer the queries of Columbus by sending him the enclosed copy of a letter written some time before in reply to similar inquiries from the Portuguese court, regarding the possibility and desirability of reaching the Indian spicelands by a sea route. It would be futile to try to analyze here the ways in which Mr. Vignaud argues that Bartholomew Columbus concocted the whole story of this double correspondence, and forged the letters to maintain his falsehood. The evidence is, of course, entirely circumstantial, and the arguments assume knavery and stupidity on the part of every one connected with the affair, without the basis of a single positive, accepted fact.

On page 309 of his Paris edition, Mr. Vignaud states that when he began the composition of his work he did not expect to do more than show that some things in the accepted story of the Toscanelli correspondence are hard to explain. Every one will agree that the letter contains plenty of inaccuracies and misstatements, but all will not find the same difficulty in understanding how these could occur in a letter written to an unknown correspondent by the Florentine savant, approaching his eightieth year, on a subject about which he had no special knowledge. The more Mr. Vignaud wrote, the more he came to appreciate the force of his own arguments, and, by the time his task was half finished, he had become thoroughly convinced that the letter could never have existed except as a forgery. His opening chapters give the reader a most favorable impression of his fair-mindedness. He is evidently trying to state without prejudice a most puzzling historical problem, regarding which he desires only to find out the truth. Unluckily, he convinces himself that he has attained to a new truth some time before the reader loses track of the course of his argument. Just in proportion as Mr. Vignaud advances in his method of assuming in each new section that he has proved the assertion which the preceding section brought forward as a possibility—not a new method in argumentation—by so much will most of his readers proceed to as confirmed a disagreement with his conclusions.

Mr. Vignaud has failed completely, in the opinion of most students competent to determine the question, to establish the thesis upon which his book is based. Indeed, he explains in his closing paragraph that his conclusions are largely hypothetical, and that even the fundamental matter of the forgery cannot be established absolutely. Criticism is disarmed, but it may be permitted to express the opinion that Mr. Vignaud, having failed of his main purpose, has nevertheless made an important contribution to Columbian literature. Not only does he force historical writers to reconsider carefully their treatment of the ideas which led to the discovery of America, but he suggests a more reasonable explanation of how that discovery came about. Columbus was a man whose mind worked in the usual way, and his discovery, like most others, was more or less of an accident. The Toscanelli letter did not cause the discovery of America, for two very good reasons. In the first place, it was sent in reply to an inquiry which shows that Columbus had previously considered the matter of sailing westward. In the second, as Mr. Vignaud shows, Toscanelli, if one may judge from the very little that is known about him, had no particular knowledge of geographical affairs; further (and this is very skilfully done), nearly all of the statements in the Toscanelli letter might have come from a book

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which, after circulating in manuscript, may have been perhaps printed at about the time the letter may have been sent to Columbus. Neither the note to Columbus nor the printed book is dated, and "may have been" is all that any one can say at present. Columbus owned and annotated a copy of that book, so that it is not surprising—despite Mr. Vignaud's hypotheses—that, if he received this letter from Toscanelli a dozen or more years before the achievement of his ambition, he never afterward referred to it as having had a decisive influence upon his thought or actions.

If the Toscanelli letter was forged, there must presumably have been some motive. Mr. Vignaud constructs this out of the well-known story of a nameless pilot from whom Columbus secured death-bed confidences regarding a visit to an island in the western Atlantic. This story was current among the contemporaries of Columbus, some of whom said that it gave him confidence in the success of his venture. It was recorded by Las Casas, as well as by other early chroniclers, with the comment that it probably had no very decisive influence upon the course of Columbus, and that it may not have been true. Most writers about Columbus have agreed with this opinion, but Mr. Vignaud claims, with good reason, that as a matter of fact the story is entirely plausible. There were a hundred tales, in every seaport of western Europe, of ships blown far out to sea where islands frequently were seen. Some of these islands, St. Brandans, Brazilia, and others, had well-established positions on the sea-charts of those days. Mr. Vignaud seems to state that the story told by his pilot was of a different category, and that it described an actual landing upon a real island in the Antilles. Evidently he does not himself believe this, however, for the most useful chapter in his book is probably the one in which he shows that Columbus very likely laid his course in 1492 by a chart whereon was marked the location of the island described to him by the nameless pilot. Columbus looked in vain for this island in mid-Atlantic, but even the greatest of maritime discoverers could not find what did not exist. This does not make it any less possible that the pilot thought he saw land in this part of the ocean, or that he maintained his faith in his eyesight by declaring that he set foot upon the land he saw. Stranger tales have been told and sworn to, and Mr. Vignaud is not the first who has treated the yarns of distant voyagers as material for serious discussion. Such discussion, to be profitable, calls for much scepticism and some intimacy with the vagaries of the ordinary human mind.

There can be no better training for such a discussion than that of a diplomatic position at the centre of culture and learning. That Mr. Vignaud is competent, no one who knows him will doubt, even though he prints in one of his appendices a long letter from Mr. John B. Shipley, containing a promise to supplement Mr. Vignaud's contributions with other more startling discoveries. Another appendix contains a detailed correction of the Latin transcript of the Toscanelli letter, by an authority on classical Latinity, who shows most conclusively that this text sins against all the canons of sound philology. Mr. Vignaud explains the value of this by stating that he has nowhere been able, notwithstanding careful research, to find any letter or work which he is certain was written by the learned Florentine astronomer. The illogical conclusion might as well have been drawn that there never was any Toscanelli. All the arguments against the authenticity of the 1474 letter could be applied just as effectively to prove that the manuscript treatise on comets ascribed to Toscanelli is a modern concoction.

GENERAL SIGEL'S MEMOIRS.

General Franz Sigel's Denkwürdigkeiten aus den Jahren 1848-49. Mannheim: Bensheimer. 1902.

The memoir written by the late Gen. Sigel of the part taken by him in the revolutionary uprisings in southern Germany in the years 1848 and 1849, is a piece of autobiography unpretentious in a literary point of view, but valuable as a contribution to the history of those troublous times. The narrative could hardly be more concise, simple, and sober than it is. Indeed, the reader would now and then wish it to go into more elaborate detail. But, so far as it goes, it produces the impression of absolute candor and truthfulness.

Franz Sigel, born in 1824, was the son of an officer in the civil service of the grand duchy of Baden, visited the gymnasium at Bruchsal for a few years, and then the military school, from which he graduated in 1843, whereupon he was appointed a lieutenant in the regular army of his little State. But in 1847 he resigned his commission, having had trouble on account of his liberal political views, and also of a duel he had fought with the adjutant of his regiment to right the wrongs suffered by a younger comrade. He then prepared himself for the study of the law, and was on the point of going to Heidelberg for that purpose when the news of the proclamation of the Republic in France, in February, 1848, came to unsettle his plans of life. The revolutionary movement swept with the rapidity of a prairie fire all over Germany, Austria, and Italy. As it was the first impulse of the people to arm themselves against the military power of the monarchs, men of military education who sympathized with the popular cause were everywhere in great demand. So it happened that the young ex-lieutenant was promptly called upon to organize a "Freicorps"—an independent battalion—at Mannheim, one of the principal cities of Baden, and a centre of revolutionary agitation in that region. This "free corps" became part of the civic guard of Mannheim, of which Friedrich Hecker, a man already famous as the most advanced of the liberal leaders in the legislative chamber of Baden, was the chief. Thus these two men became warmly attached to each other, and their friendship was destined to play an important part in Sigel's career.

He was not permitted to remain long in Mannheim, for his services were soon urgently demanded in the extreme southern part of the grand duchy, near the Lake of Constance, where the people were particularly alarmed by wild rumors that the Kings of Würtemberg and of Bavaria were preparing to send their soldiers against them and to rob them of their liberties. In point of fact, those monarchs were at that moment only too glad to be suffered by their own subjects to sit still on their thrones. But even the most groundless panics were easily spread in those days, and thus the good people in the lake region were most anxious to be speedily organized in armed array, so as to be prepared for defence, and Sigel obeyed their summons. These excitements, unreasoning as in great part they were, prepared the way for a still more unreasoning attempt soon after made by Hecker, who was a fiery orator and enjoyed an immense popularity among his countrymen, to start in that southwestern corner of Germany a revolutionary uprising for the purpose of making all Germany a republic. Sigel was drawn into the attempt by his attachment to Hecker, although, as he frankly confesses, his own judgment was very much against it. The enterprise resulted in disastrous failure. The new levies of volunteers, hastily called from the plough, the workshop, and the counting-room, were, as Sigel in his memoir describes with great clearness and candor, easily overcome and dispersed by the regular troops sent against them, and the leaders had to quit the country. Hecker went to America, settled down on a farm in Illinois, and subsequently served the Union as a patriotic and brave soldier. Sigel found refuge in Switzerland, where he wrote for German periodicals and waited for further developments.

He had not to wait long. In the spring of 1849, a singularly strange, almost grotesque, situation presented itself. The German Parliament, sprung from the Revolution of 1848 as the representative of the sovereign German people had been sitting in Frankfort since May 18 of that year. It had been openly or tacitly recognized by the German monarchs as a "constituent assembly," that was to make Germany a united empire on a constitutional basis. It had framed such a Constitution, and completed the work in March, 1849. Then it elected an emperor, and the choice fell upon the King of Prussia, Frederick William IV. The imperial crown was formally offered to him through a commission appointed by the Parliament on April 3. It took him until April 21 to form his final decision, and then he declined, his real reason for this momentous step being that the offer was made by the people, not by the princes, some of whom were supposed to have assented to it only under a sort of duress, and that the Constitution made by the Frankfort Parliament was too democratic. The rejection of the work of the National Parliament by the King of Prussia, involving the complete disappointment of the longing of the Germans for national unity, threw the whole country into intense excitement. In various places the people rose in arms to compel the recognition of the new Constitution of the Empire. In every instance it was the King of Prussia who sent his troops to put down the insurrectionary movements as criminal attempts against the legitimate authorities. The whimsical strangeness of the situation, then, was this: the insurgents demanded the enforcement of the Constitution framed by the National Parliament, and of its decree making the King of Prussia the Emperor of Germany, and the same King of Prussia who was thus to be made Emperor of Germany treated the same men who had thus risen as guilty of high treason. That the insurrection soon took a republican turn is true, but this was largely owing to

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the attitude of the King of Prussia and other princes, who nullified what had been done to establish national unity on a constitutional basis.

The most serious of the uprisings took place in the Bavarian Palatinate, on the left bank of the Rhine, and in the Grand Duchy of Baden. In the Palatinate a large majority of the people, supported by a considerable number of soldiers who had deserted from the Bavarian garrisons (among them some officers), not only declared themselves for the National Constitution, but appointed a provisional government independent of the Bavarian crown. In Baden not only the people, but the whole regular army, excepting most of the commissioned officers, rose in revolt, and the Grand Duke took to flight—many of the superior functionaries of the administration with him. The provisional government, which was promptly instituted, at once sought to strengthen the regular army—which consisted of about 20,000 men, infantry, cavalry, and artillery, and which occupied also the fortress of Rastatt—with fresh levies of volunteers, and thus to build up a formidable revolutionary force. It was under these circumstances that Sigel was called back from his exile in Switzerland, and attached to the War Department of the provisional government to aid in the work of military organization. He was promptly on hand. In his memoir he vividly describes the deranged state of the administrative machinery—the functionaries of higher grade having left, and those of lower grade not knowing what to do—and the utter confusion of counsel as to the policy to be followed prevailing among the men at the head of affairs.

It should have been evident to every clear-thinking mind that the movement for the National Constitution in the shape of a popular insurrection was absolutely doomed to disastrous failure, unless the regular armies of other German states imitated the example of that of Baden, or unless the popular movement assumed such dimensions all over Germany that the governments must abandon the idea of withstanding it. There seemed to be a possibility of stirring the people of the neighboring kingdom of Würtemberg, who in various ways manifested much enthusiasm for the national cause, into sympathetic action, and, perhaps, even of inducing the whole, or at least a large part, of the Würtemberg army to follow the example of the army of Baden. This might have been brought about by a bold and rapid dash into that country, with a military array sufficient to impress the imagination of the Würtembergers with the strength of the revolutionary movement, to serve as a rallying point for volunteer organizations, and to bring home to the Würtemberg soldiers what could and ought to be done by them. Sigel had the good sense to see this, and accordingly proposed that such an expedition across the Würtemberg frontier be undertaken without delay. But he was overruled in the council of the provisional government, which favored an aggressive movement northward in the direction of Darmstadt and Frankfort. Some persons at headquarters even favored the plan of maintaining a strictly defensive attitude, and of not crossing the boundary of Baden at all. Such ideas prevailing over Sigel's advice, the fate of the insurrection was sealed, for if it did not rapidly spread, it was hopelessly lost. Prussia was gathering a large force on the lower Rhine, of which some Hessian troops with two Würtemberg battalions formed the advance, to invade Baden and the Palatinate from the north, while a so-called "imperial" corps under Gen. Peucker, consisting of troops from various German states, was forming to attack from the east.

Sigel was for a time Minister of War and chief commander of the forces, and as such conducted some operations on the northern frontier against the Prussians, which he elaborately describes. He was much interfered with by others connected with the provisional government, and it soon turned out that some of his regular troops, especially the cavalry, could not be depended upon. There were many breaches of discipline and several attempts at actual mutiny. Not a few soldiers strongly objected to being led "out of their country." The operation failed, and Sigel had to give up the chief command. Soon afterwards Gen. Mieroslawski, who had distinguished himself in Polish insurrections and who had been some time previously engaged by the provisional government to lead its forces, arrived on the scene. His selection was no doubt owing to a sort of superstitious belief then prevailing among laymen, that more than other people the Poles were in possession of the real mysteries of the military art, and wherever there was anything like a revolutionary war to be carried on, Polish officers were called into service. Mieroslawski was a man of recognized ability, and, with a sure eye for Sigel's merits, he made him his chief of staff and second in command. Meanwhile the Prussians under the Prince of Prussia (later Emperor William I.), advancing from the north, possessed themselves of the Palatinate, and crossed the Rhine at Germersheim to take Mieroslawski's army, which was concentrated at Heidelberg, in the rear, and, with the aid of Peucker's corps approaching from the east, to bag the main body of the insurrectionary forces. But Mieroslawski, by a rapid movement, threw himself upon the Prussians who had crossed the Rhine, fought them at Waghäusel, Sigel commanding his left wing, and won some advantages, when again his cavalry took to flight and carried a large part of the army with them. In a general order, published after the engagement at Waghäusel, Mieroslawski said: "Our situation is one of great difficulty; but so long as I have that calm young hero Sigel at my side, I must not despair of anything." Sigel does not mention this testimony in his memoir, but it deserves to be recorded.

By a very cleverly executed flank march, Mieroslawski withdrew his forces from the columns of the enemy converging upon him, but the rest of the hopeless campaign consisted in a retreat towards the Swiss frontier, covered by occasional fighting. One of these engagements, that on the river Murg, in which the poet Kinkel, who served as a private in a volunteer battalion, was captured by the Prussians, lasted nearly two days, and was in part quite creditable. After this action Mieroslawski laid down his command, which then again fell to Sigel. Although the army was a mere wreck, reduced to less than one-half of its original strength, he still planned an attempt to beat Peucker and exhaust the last possibility of relieving the forces besieged by the Prussians in the fortress of Rastatt; but in spite of his efforts to hold them together, one body of troops after another, against orders, worked its way to the Rhine, and crossed that river into Swiss territory. Finally, having only 4,500 men and 40 pieces of artillery left under his command, he had to do the same thing, and thus, he writes, "I bade farewell to my Fatherland forever."

The rest of the memoir contains the sad story of the 28 military executions that followed the surrender of the fortress of Rastatt and a short account of Sigel's wanderings as an exile until he found a new home in this republic, where in our own civil war he served faithfully and well. The book throws much light upon some of the causes of the failure of the revolutionary attempts in Germany in 1848 and 1849, and its modest and ingenuous tone does credit to its author.

Literary Values, and Other Papers. By John Burroughs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

We have not recently had a collection of diverse essays more delightful or more pregnant with suggestion than this by Mr. Burroughs. It should be said frankly, however, that they have the savor of "mere literature" rather than the austerer virtues of "mere criticism." In place of the masculine concatenation and ordonnance of ideas which is the all but inseparable quality of sound critical writing, they exhibit a genial, Emersonian effusion of thought which is stimulating and wholly pleasant, but perhaps just a little disappointing to the voracious reader, who, as Arnold would say, "wants criticism."

Mr. Burroughs's most significant remarks are in his dealings with the ever-fruitful subject of style. In his actual stylistic predilections he is surprisingly catholic; he can admire Virgil or Gibbon or De Quincey as well as Walton or Bunyan; but in his theory he is more of a protestant. No one has written better, more illustratively, of the absolute need in good style of liveliness, limpidity, expressiveness, and personality. He adopts the Wordsworthian notion of the word as the body of the thought—only its garment, as the body is the garment of the soul. At times, even, he seems to be writing of Style with a big S; but in this he is not altogether consistent with the meaning of his volume as a whole. More than once his just admiration for the wilding prose which snatches a grace beyond the reach of art, leads him to express an over-emphatic distrust of scholarly prose. We can readily agree as to the dangers of academies and libraries for the writer, but scarcely that "the simple, unbookish man" is the most likely to write good prose. Lucidity and measure, even enthusiasm and humanity, come as frequently to the truly cultured man as to the simple. It is a fair question whether, at this time of day, the man who publicly admires the prose of Whitman deserves better of his country than he who should be all for Newman, or, say, for Jowett.

It is quite in harmony with the bent of the body of Mr. Burroughs's work that he should deplore the stylist. But much that he has to say on his text of "Words, words, words!" is surely grounded upon a half-truth. That "the stylist's main effort is a

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verbal one, to find a meaning for words"; that "his thoughts are word-begotten, and are often as unsubstantial as spectres and shadows," is quite true in many cases, but it is, at best, a superficial view. There is a very real sense in which the process of life itself is but finding the meaning of words. Some such sense as this lies at the root of Hobbes's famous remark, that words are a coinage by which we draw upon the accumulated experience of mankind. The true scholarly writer, the stylist even, secures by a kind of elective affinity those words which are the fittest substantial form for his thought. There is a place for the fresh, earthy word; there is also a place for the ink-horn term, and there is a tangible literary ideal of fine and full veracity which can be attained only by contrivance, sometimes even by artifice, of words.

The partiality of Mr. Burroughs's view is evident when he comes to definite judgment. His censure of the manner of Prof. Walter Raleigh's 'Style' is likely to provoke little dissent; but to say that men like Walter Pater "are enamored of style itself and cultivate it for its own sake," or that "Pater studied words; Arnold studied ideas," is to miss the point altogether. The greater wealth of Pater's learning and his excessively qualifying mind, contrasted with Arnold's preoccupation with "the chief and principal things," give some superficial color to such dicta; but it is, nevertheless, quite certain, *pace* Mr. Burroughs, that Pater did study ideas, and that the sole care of his writing was about truth—the perfect mating of word and meaning.

Yet, at the end of the essay on "Style and the Man," Mr. Burroughs swings to a conclusion so humane and sincere that we can do no better than quote from it:

"There are as many styles as there are moods and tempers in men. Words may be used to give us a sense of vigor, a sense of freshness, a sense of the choice and scholarly, or of the dainty and exclusive, or of the polished and elaborate, or of heat or cold, or of any other quality known to life. . . . In treating nature or outdoor themes, let the style have limpidness, sweetness, freshness; in criticism, let it have dignity, lucidity, penetration; in history, let it have mass, sweep, comprehension; in all things let it have vitality, sincerity, genuineness."

We have dealt at such length with the significant matter of style that we can pause but briefly over Mr. Burroughs's theory and practice of criticism proper. Queerly enough, his statement of the business of criticism is almost precisely identical with Pater's: to discriminate in a work of literary art those elements of personality in it which are most individual. To the human personality behind a book Mr. Burroughs strikes cleanly, but his criticism of this sort operates almost altogether by the consideration of details, the vital word, the beautiful line, or of the atmosphere. His criticism is so thoroughly impressionistic that while he can understand the imaginative heat which strikes out the true word or the polished line, he seems neither to experience in himself nor adequately to appreciate in others that shaping, formative heat of the imagination by which a work in any of the arts is created and moulded in symmetrical, living unity. It is for this reason that his general literary judgments are applicable chiefly to lyrical poetry and discursive prose, and prove inadequate when superimposed upon such forms as the drama or the epic. His process of thought in this direction centres around the singular statement that "to be moved to anything but admiration is foreign to pure art"—a notion which can be justified only by making "admiration" cover a variety of emotions reaching from the "sudden glory" of laughter to the disinterested love which we feel toward pure artistic beauty, and the awe which disturbs and subdues us in the presence of the sublime.

Three Years' War. By Christiaan Rudolf De Wet. Frontispiece by John S. Sargent, R.A. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

Sargent's portrait of the burgher commander—a strong, attractive face with resolute mouth—is one of the most striking features of this book. Gen. De Wet's story of the Boer-British struggle of 1899-1902, is told with a grave simplicity, lighted up by touches of humor, and is devoid of the passionate declamation which might not unnaturally be looked for in the account of a war fought with such sacrifices, at such odds, and with so many grounds for bitter criticism of his adversaries. He does devote a few pages to the sufferings of the Boer women, both upon their devastated farms and in the concentration camps, but while his feelings are deep, his expressions are restrained, and more in sorrow than in anger.

As an addition to the mass of facts already at our command with regard to the motives and conduct of the war, the narrative is not important, for the ground has been thoroughly traversed before; its field of description is confined to the active warfare which began in October, 1899, and there is no discussion of the previous South African affairs which led up to the outbreak of hostilities. The weight of the story is derived chiefly from the character and achievements of the author, who, at an early period of the military operations, was advanced from the ranks, as a private, to the leadership of the army, when his fertility of resource and unwearied energy showed him to possess extraordinary fitness for his work. The appendixes are interesting with their detailed reports of the discussions which eventuated in peace. The assemblies of the representatives of the African republic to consider if they were under the necessity of surrender, were every day opened with prayer, sometimes by a clergyman, as often by one of the officers. They show the pathetic deeps of distress to which their people were reduced, and the reluctance of many of the leaders to recognize, even with their utter lack of resources and the likelihood of their country's being made a desert, that independence was hopeless.

From his inside view, Gen. De Wet confirms all that has been elsewhere told of the contemptuous audacity with which these farmers habitually assailed forces many times their numbers, with a sublime disregard of all precedents concerning the resistlessness of entrenched enemies. This assurance that any one of them was equal to three or four of his opponents, which they had contracted in their many combats with Kaffirs and Zulus, was illustrated in the first month of activities, at Nicholson's Neck, where two hundred Boers stormed a kop held by a thousand British, killed and wounded more than two hundred with a loss to themselves of nine, and took prisoners the rest, with their valuable equipments. A little later, at Roodewal, with half their opponents' force, and the latter in a highly defensible position, guarding a railroad storehouse of supplies worth three-quarters of a million of pounds sterling, they did immense damage to the English, capturing the men, carrying off and burying the ammunition, and giving most of the goods which they could not take away to plunder and flame. Among these valuables were large mail collections, full of miscellaneous treasures for the soldiers, which not only the Boer troops, but also the prisoners, were allowed, first, to ransack. "It was a very amusing sight to see the soldiers robbing their own mail. They had such a large choice that they soon became too dainty to consider even a plum pudding worth looking at." As they were reluctantly dragged away, they left a trail of parcels to mark their road.

Concerning the blockhouses, with connecting wire fences, which Gen. Roberts, in the last days of the war, drew as a cordon around the remnants of the republican army, our author speaks with scorn of their efficiency:

"The English have never been able to give an instance of a capture effected by them. On the contrary, when, during the last stages of the war, it happened, as it often did, that they drove some of our men against one or the other of the great blockhouse lines, we generally succeeded in breaking through with fewer casualties than when they concentrated their forces and formed a circle around us."

Something of this ineffectiveness seems to have been due to the disposition of the English soldiers to confine themselves to the blockhouses in apprehension of the deadly aim of their enemies, who, to the end, with all their feebleness of numbers, filled the English rank and file with profound terror.

The volume is dedicated "To my fellow-subjects of the British empire."

An Italian and English Dictionary. With Pronunciation and Brief Etymology. By Hjalmar Edgren, Ph.D., etc., assisted by Giuseppe Bico, D.C.L., and John L. Gerig. Henry Holt & Co. 1902. Two volumes in one, pp. 576, 452.

The need of a good Italian-English dictionary has long been felt, and it may be said at once that the above attempt to supply it is a great advance on its predecessors. The fulness to which it lays claim would be more apparent if resort had not been had to the compression to which the Germans were led by their compounds, and which is indeed a necessity if unwieldy bulk is to be avoided. Nevertheless, one turns regretfully back to the generous quarto page of old Baretti (1778), "improved and augmented with above 10,000 words omitted in the last edition of Altieri," and yet conceding not only a separate rubric to every word, but even a paragraph to each idiomatic illustration; not to speak of cross-references. The tyro in Italian will complain most in using Professor Edgren's Dictionary. Suppose, for example, that he seeks the verb *vivere*; after much patience he finds it embedded in a section led off by *viva*, with sixteen intervening words, all docked of the root *vi*. We cannot think that a happy economy, even if the arrangement be alphabetical. We must add, that out of thirty-three words embraced in this section only three, *viva*, *vivere*, and *vivido*, are exhibited in full; *vivo*, with which it

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concludes, and whose exemplification requires nearly a third of the entire space, appears only in the mutilated form *-vo*. The editor plumes himself on this grouping of etymologically related words, as serving "the threefold purpose of both etymological and mnenonic association, of space-saving, and of facilitating the search for words by enabling the student to pass easily from one group to another." We think this a pure delusion. Much time is lost, and the whole image of the word, as we have shown, is seldom presented for the eye to catch and remember.

"Space for idioms," it is frankly admitted, "has been economized in favor of a larger vocabulary." The wisdom of this again may be contested. Baretti, who sought both ends, made his Dictionary highly readable, so racy was his English rendering of the Italian idiom. Nobody can read Edgren for pleasure, and he has minimized his assistance in discriminating among definitions strung one after another. His etymologies, being here, are welcome; but we could have spared them for Baretti's bracketed Italian synonyms (*e. g., miro* [*maraviglioso*]), or definitions (*e. g., ghetto* [*luogo dove abitano li Ebrei nelle città d'Italia*]), followed immediately by the English definition. This, we are well aware, would have exacted more room, but still we grudge a little the space occupied by the etymologies, which might have been granted to a modicum of grammar by way of preface. This is not wholly neglected in the vocabulary—irregular inflections are noted; but we could have wished the plural of substantives, a source of much difficulty, to have been regularly indicated there, as in German dictionaries.

To call in Dr. Johnson's friend once more to help out our criticism, let us quote Baretti on *chi*. He first defines it as a relative pronoun, masculine and feminine, 'who, whom,' with three examples and one (unlabelled) of the interrogative. There follows *"chi* [*quello che*]," 'he that, whomever, whomsoever,' with two examples; *"chi* [*alcuno*]" 'some,' with two; *"chi* [*chiunque*]" 'any man, any one, anybody,' with one—in all, 25 lines. Against this we have Edgren's single line: *"chi* [L., *quis*], pron.: who, whom, whoever." If, now, we turn to *who* in the English-Italian vocabulary, we find *chi* recognized solely as an interrogative pronoun.

In the prefatory page given to Italian pronunciation, we read, under "accent-marks," that, "though usage varies, Italian is ordinarily written without any other accent-sign than the grave for accented final vowels (whether pronounced close or open)." Nothing is said of diacritic marks distinguishing words spelt alike, nor of a practice, which has arisen in recent years, that leaves us *già, là*, etc., but requires *ché, perché, né, sé, sú, giú, piú, virtú*, etc. This change was worth noticing and discriminating. The indication of the pronunciation is one of the admirable features of this Dictionary.

The vocabulary, while rich, is, of course, far from exhaustive, and, in spite of the literary cast deliberately given to it, many words used by the best writers of the present day will be sought in vain. In a volume of classic modern verse republished only a few months ago we encounter *annitrire, arengo, maïmare*, for example, omitted here, as is *rudero*, though the plural, *ruderi*, is given. Under the letter I, the warning to look for a certain class of words under S is very obscurely conveyed thus: "*i-* prothetic sound before *s* + consonant," with no illustration. Even this does not stand at the head of the article, as it should to save a futile search for words like *(i)scambievole, (i)spumeggiare*, etc. Under O, some hint might have been given of the interchange of *o* and *u*, as "lutolento," "lut*u*lento," "incolto," "inc*u*lto."

The English-Italian volume appears intended rather for Anglo-Saxon than for Italian consultation. Absent are caucus, golf, polo, monitor (the vessel), as if because the things designated are non-Italian; yet an Italian reader of English would meet constantly with all these words. Absent, too, are trade-union, boycott, strike—in the substantive or verbal sense—(though *sciopero scioperare* occur in the other vocabulary), sleeping-car (*vagone*, by the way, does not occur in its proper place, though it is given as a definition under wagon), job (of the political variety), jobbery, Jingo; and yet all these notions are familiar in the peninsula, as may well be vegetarian and vivisectionist. Prohibitionist occurs, but with no temperance connotation, though this is highly necessary for an Italian reader; and the equivalent given, *proibizionista*, is wanting in the Italian vocabulary. Further omissions are exterritoriality and Trust. Boom, the verb, is credited only with the sense of motion; not of humming, still less of promoting (in slang usage). Automobile and Salvation Army are taken in, along with "interview" and trolley, for neither of which is there an Italian equivalent, it would appear.

Our examination of this work is far from being intended to be censorious; rather to put users on their guard, and to contribute perhaps to some future revision. The spread of knowledge of Italian and enjoyment of its noble, never-flagging literature is much to be desired. Professor Edgren and his colleagues are entitled to hearty thanks for their endeavor to that end, whatever their shortcomings.

Journal of a Tour in the Netherlands in the Autumn of 1815. By Robert Southey. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

Robert Southey wrote a goodly number of works acknowledged to be prose, and many more called poetry by a generation more indulgent even than our own.

> "No eye beheld when William plunged
> Young Edmund in the stream:
> No human ear but William's heard
> Young Edmund's drowning scream."

Even a Poet Laureate nowadays is expected to do better than this. Like many a poet in every generation, Southey was by nature a prose writer. The society of Coleridge and the air of the Lake District thrust upon him a sort of mechanical literary life, and in 1813 he became Poet Laureate. A few weeks after the battle of Waterloo, the sale of 'Roderick' justifying the expenditure, he decided to visit the battlefield and celebrate the victory of British arms. He set out, accordingly, with his wife and daughter and a friend on a month's tour. The poem on Waterloo, which duly appeared in sixty-one stanzas, is merely this journal thrown into verse and entitled "The Poet's Pilgrimage." The prose version, now nearly a century old, is here published for the first time. A publisher's note informs us that the MS. was bought at the Southey sale at Keswick in 1864 "by a well-known North Country banker and antiquarian of the day." Southey, of course, never intended his diary, which he wrote as a rough sketch, to see the light. But it is far more amusing and better worth reading than the version which he regarded as a professional achievement.

Southey had twice visited Lisbon, and is fond of comparing Portuguese and Flemish manners and customs. But his heart was in Keswick, and his appreciation of the scenery of the Netherlands is tempered by memories of Derwentwater. At Ghent the Southeys joined forces with some English acquaintances, and hereafter we read of the adventures of a party of eleven, with natural complications in the matter of posting-carriages, and small country inns. There were, of course, no railways, and Southey's descriptions show a knowledge of the life and manners of the people which it would be hard to acquire in three weeks with our less intimate methods of travel. Everywhere he finds the English popular and the French detested. "The Prussians are spoken of with equal bitterness; perhaps with more, because they came in the character of friends, and acted as rapaciously as enemies." Southey devotes some thirty-five pages to his two visits to Waterloo, and as a contemporary account it has an interest for the modern reader. He shares the wish of the inhabitants that the battle should be called Hougomont or La Haye-Sainte or Mont St. Jean—anything rather than Waterloo, since the fighting was never nearer to that place than two and a half miles. The bravery of all who fought had made a deep impression on the people: Southey was told of the "absolute *rabies* of the French; . . . they curst the English while they were fighting, and curst the precision with which their grape-shot were fired, . . . neither too high nor too low, but struck right in the middle." The roads and fields were still covered with caps and shoes and French cards; bullets and weapons were being sold as souvenirs to excursionists; "five or six parties of English arrived while we were here." At Waterloo,

> "Lord Uxbridge's leg, the most remarkable relic of modern times, is deposited in the garden of a house opposite the inn. . . .
> "The owner of the house is as proud of possessing it as a true Catholic would be of an undoubted leg of his patron saint. The figure, manner, and earnest enthusiasm of this leg-worshipper were in the highest degree comic. He led us to a little mound in his garden, about three or four feet in diameter, and of proportionate elevation (sounding words should be used on great occasions), and in the centre of it is a tuft of Michaelmas daisies. The leg, he told us, had been at first interred behind the house. But the wife of my lord has requested him to plant a tree which should mark the spot; and he had removed the leg into his own garden, and there deposited it in a proper box or coffin. . . . In November he should plant the tree; it was to be 'un saule—English willow.' " 'Oui, monsieur,' I replied, 'j'entends—l'arbre larmoyant; the weeping willow. It will be very picturesque and pathetic.' "

Then follows a long French epitaph on "La Jambe de l'illustré, brave et vaillant Comte Uxbridge."

From Waterloo the travellers went to Na-

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mur Spa and Aix, returning to Brussels by Maestricht and Louvain; then across the frontier to Calais, and so to Dover by a fourteen hours' crossing in the Post-office packet. Wherever he stayed, Southey bought books. In the village of St. Nicholas he picked up the 'Lives of the Admirals,' which one may suppose he found useful for his own work published a few years later under the same title. Of Antwerp Cathedral, which had been stripped by the French, he says: "The great picture of Rubens is expected to-morrow; others have already arrived from Paris (for which honor and praise to the name of old Blücher); and when they are replaced there is to be an illumination and a day of public rejoicing." Southey must have had a poor memory for anecdotes; he tells hardly any, and we meet with one of an Irishman repeated as new on page 237, within a few days of its appearance on page 38. His style is genial, and his interest in every detail of the tour makes him interesting to read.

There are a few misprints in the book, which is one of a limited edition and admirably got up. On page 114, for "more siro," read "more suo"; on page 147, for "L'ouvre," read "J'ouvre"; on page 34, the spelling of "Appelles" for "Apelles," and "Polycretus" for "Polycletus" in the Latin epitaph of Van Eyck at Bruges may be Southey's error.

Timber: A Comprehensive Study of Wood In All Its Aspects, Commercial and Botanical, Showing the Different Applications and Uses of Timber in Different Trades, etc. Translated from the French of Paul Charpentier, Expert Chemical Engineer, Assayer of the French Mint, etc., by Joseph Kennell. London: Scott, Greenwood & Co. 1902.

A treatise on timber, covering the ground marked out in the title above given, would meet with a hearty welcome from botanists, foresters, and engineers. Unfortunately, the promise of the title is not kept. The study is not comprehensive; it does not consider wood in all of its aspects, either commercial or botanical; it does not treat of some of the most important applications and uses of timber in the different trades. Hence it is distinctly disappointing.

The systematic portion, which sets out to describe the timber trees of the world, is characterized throughout by a lack of proportion, and by a greater lack of familiarity with the subject. To the timbers of Europe the author devotes twenty-two pages; to those of Africa thirty-two; to Asiatic timber, five; to the timber of North America, including Mexico, three pages; while that of South America has six or seven. This woful disproportion would not strike the reader as unpardonable, perhaps, were it not that there is an absolute carelessness in the selection of the species studied, and a still greater negligence in their treatment. Why should the basket willows demand in a work on Timber more space than is given to the white pine or to some of the great trees of France? Why should about two pages be devoted to an examination of the chemical behavior of the juice of the banana plant, a plant which possesses no true stem save a soft cone hidden in the bases of the leaf stalks, and which does not suggest Timber even in the remotest degree?

The work begins with an account of the classical researches of Payen and Frémy on cellulose, but it does not refer to the recent investigations in England and in Germany, which have practically revolutionized the subject. Next follows a chapter on Vegetable Histology, which the translator has made worse than it really is: he speaks of "Utricular" tissues, "Suberic" cells, "Streaky" ducts, and the like, wholly ignoring the general usage of English-speaking botanists. The discussion of the chemical and physical properties of wood is much behind the times, even with regard to the results of investigations by the French.

The author's method of treating individual species of timber trees can be best understood by a half-page taken from the study of the conifers:

"*Australian Pine* (*Pinus australis*). This valuable tree is seen uninterruptedly in the lower portions of Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, upon a wide stretch of ground. The average height of it is about 80 feet. Its leaves, which are of a beautiful brilliant green color, are very long."

Of course the translator is responsible for the blunder of making this southern pine *Australian*, but the author is responsible for the inadequacy of the description. Let us take a species nearer home:

"*Pitch Pine* (*Pinus rigida*). This variety is met with upon the littoral of the Atlantic. Light, tractable, and sandy soil is especially suited to its growth. Upon gravelly and sandy soils the timber of this tree is compact, heavy, and contains a large amount of resin. It is employed for a variety of purposes, and has been for some time in demand for the building of Swiss cottages and light furniture."

"'*Lord Weymouth*' *Pine* (*Pinus strobus*). This is a very beautiful tree, but is very sensitive to cold and heat. It accommodates itself to all descriptions of soil. Its timber, suitable for numerous purposes, is largely employed in shipbuilding."

This is the description of the noble White Pine!

The spruces are called "Firs." The following unnecessary confusion is introduced respecting our common spruces:

"Outside of the different species of pine, the most important varieties found in the forests of the State [of Maine] are the elm, platane, maple, beech, then, in decreasing proportion, the oak, birch, lime, and ash. Among the smaller trees, the larch, cedar, fir, poplar, and wild-cherry trees are especially found. . . . The best timber actually obtained upon the banks of the Penobscot, Kennebec, and other large rivers is that from the fir-tree. Planks about 100 feet long and 6½ broad without a single knot are the current merchandise. These planks are obtained from gigantic fir trees."

It does not seem at all necessary to italicise the many errors and inconsistencies in these statements. They serve as fair illustrations of the work.

The author is said to be an engineer, and in the part of the book devoted to the exploitation of forests and that sort of thing, belonging mostly to engineering, he is at his best. But he does not write concerning these matters as a forester would and as an authority on timber should. He is a chemist, too, and we naturally look for a clear and accurate treatment of chemical phases presented by timber and by wood in general. But the following extract shows that the author and the translator, between them, have made rather a mess of it:

"In manufacture made with violet-ebony sawdust a rather interesting phenomenon is produced. The air is expulsed, and the mixture of sawdust and blood albumen undergoes fusion. A new matter is formed resembling woody tissue, and a hard and dense wood is obtained capable of undergoing all cabinet-making work."

In a volume professing to treat of the different applications and uses of timber, and of all the commercial aspects of wood, the subject of wood-pulp, a very important product of our forests in the Old World and the New, ought to receive at least a few pages, even to the exclusion of such topics as the extracts from orange flowers. In short, a work on Timber should treat of Timber. The present volume would find its chief usefulness as affording exercises for correction in the forest schools, provided the students could be made to regard the task seriously.

The Story of the Trapper. By A. C. Laut. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. 1900. Pp. xi., 284.

The story that a boy when told, after he had first read 'Robinson Crusoe,' that it was not true, burst into tears, could not repeat itself in regard to the present Story. The internal harmony forms a kind of internal and circumstantial evidence which will not let readers believe it false in any important point. The writer conceals her sex not only by initials on the title-page, but throughout, while she has reason to be proud of it. Countless particulars, each adding its little utmost of glowworm light to the perfection and charm of her pictures, would have escaped masculine eyes and pens. Her experience of fifteen years in the broadest trapperdom on the globe brought her into touch with those who rule and who serve there from lowest to highest. The revelation thus unveiled to her at once was so fascinating that she sought it again and again, with "a gypsy yearning for the wilds." Her book is a new proof that lookers-on at a game may see more than the players themselves, and will tell its story better.

About one-third of the volume consists in a sketch of the American fur field in the trans-Mississippi—extending at first up to the sources of that river, and thereafter broadening from ocean to ocean, and boundlessly north. We are told of chronic conflicts, corporate, national, and international, for this richest spoil; that while other companies have proved bubbles which the earth as well as the water hath, the Hudson's Bay remains a pyramid; that its sway is undisputed, that its business is, and will continue, as large as ever throughout a region vaster than our settled area. It is claimed that these "Lords of the North" have saved the game and the aborigines, while the United States have destroyed both.

The remaining two-thirds of the volume affords a more detailed account than we know where to seek elsewhere of life and labor in trapperdom. The trapper, isolated like Robinson Crusoe, has a far more scanty kit of tools. How he exists and achieves success in perpetual snow, cold, and want of all things, is a mystery which piqued the curiosity of Miss Laut. The results of her plucking out the heart of it will be welcome news not only to inquisitive children, but to the most thoroughgoing votaries of outing among us. They will here read secrets, gleaned from men who can-

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not read, about the ways of beasts in the great lone land which are not written in professional treatises. Some questions here answered are: How does the trapper make his canoe, his moccasins, and skin clothing; how can he contrive snow-shoes that will also serve for snow shovels, and such that he can also "sit on their rear ends and coast as on a toboggan" (p. 120); how does he shoot or "leap" a rapid; how do signs unnoticed by others or unmeaning to them point him to his prey in their hidden lairs; how does he hide his traps so that they are neither seen nor suspected by the ever suspicious; how does he keep warm while a stranger in the same dress is freezing beside him? We learn with wonder that not only a man's track, but the faintest trace of human odor at a trap, means failure. Among tricks for purging away the "man-smell" about traps we read: "The first thing a trapper does who has had a long spell of ill luck is to get a sweating-bath and make himself clean" (p. 152). Usually his main use of fire is to keep wolves off rather than to keep himself warm. Wolves dogging behind a sled are checked by throwing among them a fish which has been specially poisoned. A tree is meaningless to a newcomer, but its moss, branches, their slope and number, are telltales of all the points of the compass to a veteran. But the occult science of the American Siberia must be sought in the disclosures of Miss Laut, which lack nothing but an index and cannot be summarized.

The last word which space allows us must be regarding the expansion of trapperdom forever more and more northward. The farther north the finer the fur, and the finest is to be found only on the white wastes of the polar zone. The fox is said in a proverb to grow gray before he grows good, and in low latitudes his color is such that trappers scorn to take him. Above the Arctic circle, however, and in the dead of winter, the fox blooms into his highest beauty—the silver fox, a nonesuch both for a glory and a covering. He is so hard to catch, and above all to reach in his habitat, that in the palmiest days of the fur-trade half a dozen of the best was the output, and now a single one is the yield of half a dozen years. Yet whoso traps that one, makes his fortune.

Cecilia: A Story of Modern Rome. By F. Marion Crawford. The Macmillan Co.

There is a certain fascination in placing very modern frivolous people in surroundings known to all by the traditions of history. The antithesis is very striking, and adds interest to a meagre tale. Mr. Marion Crawford knows Rome well, and has the grip of any amount of local color in things Italian, but his personages remain puppets, and we cannot help seeing the strings that keep them in motion and knowing from the first how it will all end. Cecilia, the heroine of this latest romance of modern Rome, is described as bearing a striking resemblance to the Naples Psyche. She has an immense fortune, is deeply interested in archæology, especially the latest discoveries in the Forum, and has the pretension to divert her life by her desultory studies in philosophy. Notwithstanding the categorical imperative and the sibyllic utterances of Zarathustra, Cecilia Palladio behaves with the want of purpose and frivolity of a mere butterfly of fashion. She is supposed to lead a double life through autosuggestion, and to imagine herself in the past the last of the Vestal Virgins. In her dream state she meets a man whose irresistible power over her is one of the cherished experiences of her existence. The living embodiment of this dream lover she meets by chance at the house of a foreign ex-princess, who is anxious to marry the heiress, for her own purposes, to her nephew, Guido d'Este, whom she introduces to her at the same time with Lamberti. Both Cecilia and Lamberti feel that they must have met before, though it is shown to be impossible. The night after the meeting, they both dream the same dream of a love scene between them in the House of the Vestal Virgins, and in the morning they visit in the Forum the scene of their dream and meet. The girl, terrified at the coincidence, rushes away, and Lamberti can account for her strange behavior only by feeling convinced she has dreamed the same dream which led him thither. Notwithstanding these telepathic experiences, Cecilia accepts Guido d'Este as her affianced husband, and Lamberti honorably avoids her presence. The situation becomes intolerable to Cecilia, who breaks off with Guido d'Este, telling him frankly that she loves another. Malaria and disappointment in love, besides a false imputation on the young man's honor in a foreign newspaper, bring about brain fever, through which he is nursed with devotion by Lamberti, who in the end marries Cecilia, having satisfied all the exigencies which the complications of the case presented. The lack of literary style and the general diffusiveness make the book fall into the category of railway reading.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ball, A. P. The Satire of Seneca on the Apotheosis of Claudius. The Columbia University Press (Macmillan). $1.25.
Ballou, Hosea. A Treatise on Atonement. New ed. Boston: The Universalist Printing House. $1.50.
Bingham, N. W. Rollicking Rhymes of Old and New Times. Henry A. Dickerman & Son.
Black, B. N. First Reader. (Black's Graded Readers.) Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Brandl, Leopold. Erasmus Darwin's Temple of Nature. Leipzig: Wilhelm Braumüller.
Buck, C. W. Under the Sun; or, The Passing of the Incas. Louisville: Sheltman & Co.
Catterall, R. H. The Second Bank of the United States. (Chicago University Decennial Publications.) Chicago: The University Press.
Everett-Green, Evelyn. Short Tales from Storyland. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Gudeman, Alfred. The Sources of Plutarch's Life of Cicero. (Publications of the University of Pennsylvania.) Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Haggard, H. R. Rural England. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $15.
Hale, Anne G. Seedlings from my Wild Garden. Abbey Press.
Hall, C. C. The Lords Baltimore and the Maryland Palatinate. Baltimore: John Murphy Co.
Heimburg, W. Lette Oldenroths Liebe. Leipzig: Ernst Keil. 3 marks.
Holmes, Edmond. The Triumph of Love. John Lane. 3s. 6d.
Judson, F. N. A Treatise on the Power of Taxation, State and Federal, in the United States. St. Louis: The F. H. Thomas Law Book Co.
Kavana, Rose M., and Beatty, Arthur. Composition and Rhetoric: Based on Literary Models. Rand, McNally & Co.
Life and Letters of the Right Honorable Friedrich Max Müller. Edited by his Wife. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.
Literature of American History. Supplement for 1900 and 1901. Edited by P. P. Wells. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Lutz, Frederick. An Elementary German Reader. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.
MacDonald, J. A. Successful Advertising: How to Accomplish It. The Lincoln Publishing Co.
Macmillan, Hugh. The Deeper Teachings of Plant Life. Thomas Whittaker. $1.20.
Moore, J. H. Accounting and Business Practice. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.55.
Packard, Joseph. Recollections of a Long Life. Edited by T. J. Packard. Washington: Byron S. Adams.
Rigoletto [libretto and score.] Piave and Verdi. English version by Natalia Macfarren. G. Schirmer.
Roth, Filibert. First Book of Forestry. Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
Sargent, C. S. *The Silva of North America.* Vols. XIII. and XIV. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Savage, M. J. Can Telepathy Explain? G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Scherer, J. A. B. Four Princes; or, The Growth of a Kingdom. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Scott, J. B. Cases on International Law Selected from Decisions of English and American Courts. Boston: The Boston Book Co.
Select Poems of Samuel Taylor Coleridge. Edited by A. J. George. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Sommerville, Maxwell. A Wanderer's Legend. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle.
Stevens, W. C. Introduction to Botany. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Thompson, E. J. Proofs of Life after Death. Chicago: Published by the Author. $2.
Van Eeden, Frederik. The Deeps of Deliverance. (Translated by Margaret Robinson.) G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Vignon, Paul. The Shroud of Christ. E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.
Ware, W. R. The American Vignola, Part I.: The Five Orders. Boston: The American Architect and Building News Co.
Whitney, Barney. Fifty Years a Teacher. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Wilbrandt, Adolf. Villa Maria. Berlin: J. G. Cotta'sche Buchhandlung Nachfolger; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Wister, O. The Dragoon of Wantley. 4th ed. J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.

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